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Experiences in collecting and using gender indicators for policymaking

The SIGI's experience in collecting and using gender indicators for policymaking

Note by the OECD Development Centre[1]

Summary

This paper presents the experience with the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) in collecting and using gender indicators for policymaking. After the introduction, the second section of the paper introduces the SIGI; the third presents the development-relevance of the SIGI, while the fourth section discusses the SIGI's role for policymaking. Finally, the fifth section presents the proposed modification for 2014, while the sixth concludes.

I. Introduction

1. There is now widespread consensus that gender equality matters for development, economic growth and poverty reduction. In addition to the fulfilment of fundamental rights for women and girls, gender equality has recently been hailed as a 'breakthrough' strategy for achieving the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) targets (UNDP, 2010). However, as has become apparent with the sluggish progress towards MDG targets, there remain

[1] Prepared by Gaëlle Ferrant. The author convey special thanks to Francesca Francavilla and Keiko Nowacka. The chart included in this paper are based on OECD Development Centre (2012) and Cerise and Francavilla (2012).

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significant obstacles to achieving equal outcomes for women and men on key economic and social indicators. Understanding the nature and extent of the obstacles to gender equality is therefore critical to designing effective policies to promote equality between men and women, and consequently, to improving development outcomes. One dimension of gender inequality that has been neglected is discriminatory social institutions. These social norms, laws and practices that restrict women's and girls' access to opportunities, resources and power are considered as the underlying drivers of gender inequality.

2. Social institutions have gained currency as a framework to explain what is stopping women and girls from achieving equal outcomes in areas such as education, employment, business, health and political participation (World Bank, 2011; Jones et al., 2010; OECD Development Centre, 2012). The OECD Development Centre's innovative Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI), launched in 2009, was the first attempt that has been made to capture, quantify and measure some of the social institutions that discriminate against women and girls. The SIGI aggregates the single variables describing discriminatory social institutions included in the Gender Institutions and Development (GID) database. The GID covers a total of 121 non-OECD countries and comprises 21 indicators on gender discrimination in social institutions in 2012 and 2009. Information on cultural and traditional practices that impact on women's economic development is coded so as to measure the level of discrimination. Such a comprehensive overview of gender-related variables and the database's specific focus on social institutions make the GID unique, providing a tool-box for a wide range of analytical queries and allowing case-by-case adaptation to specific research or policy questions, even if the country is not ranked in the SIGI.

3. This paper presents the SIGI's experience in collecting and using gender indicators for policymaking. This paper is set out as follows: The second section introduces the SIGI; the third presents the development-relevance of the SIGI, while the fourth section discusses the SIGI's role for policy-making. Finally, the fifth section presents the proposed modification for 2014, while the sixth concludes.

II. What is the SIGI?

A. Why do discriminatory social institutions matter?

1. Definition of discriminatory social institutions

4. Measuring social institutions draws attention to the role of 'culture' or social relations in limiting or enabling individual or collective agency. North describes institutions as "the humanly devised constraints that structure political, economic and social interaction. They consist of both informal constraints (sanctions, taboos, customs, traditions, and codes of conduct), and formal rules (constitutions, laws, property rights)" (North, 1990). Formal and informal laws can co-exist in different types of legal systems including civil or common law, customary law and religious laws. The 'social' aspect of social institutions refers to the way in which formal laws, informal laws, social norms and practices influence social relations and shape the decisions, choices and behaviours of groups, communities and individuals (Jütting et al., 2008).

5. Social institutions are not fixed, and there are often significant variations across countries, regions and communities. They are also in constant flux and change over time, albeit slowly. While social institutions in themselves are not inherently good or bad, we define *discriminatory* social institutions as those that restrict or exclude women and girls and consequently curtail their access to opportunities, resources and power which negatively impacts upon development outcomes. It is on these discriminatory social institutions that the SIGI is focused.

2. Role in defining gender norms and opportunities

6. Social institutions set the parameters of what decisions, choices or behaviours are deemed acceptable or unacceptable in a society and therefore play a key role in defining and influencing gender roles and relations. Through their influence on the unequal distribution of power between men and women in the private sphere of the family, in the economic sphere, and in public life, discriminatory social institutions constrain the opportunities of men. As shown in the next section, by determining opportunities and outcomes for women and girls, discriminatory social institutions subsequently influence development outcomes.

7. Social institutions exert their influence both directly and indirectly (Jütting and Morrison, 2005). Discriminatory formal and informal laws, social norms and practices can directly influence women's social and economic role, for example by not allowing women to access bank loans, preventing women from owning land or restricting women's ability to move freely in public space. An example of social institutions exerting indirect influence on women's economic and social role is the social norm which ascribes greater social value to sons over daughters, and thus results in underinvestment in the health and education of girls.

8. Social institutions operate and exert influence at micro, meso and macro levels. For example, social institutions regarding women's status in the family (Discriminatory Family Code) play out at a household level (micro) in behaviours and attitudes, such as unequal financial decision-making power between men and women; at a community level in specific beliefs or sanctioned practices (meso), such as discrimination against widows; and at a country level in terms of broader social norms or laws which allow discrimination (macro), such as discriminatory laws in relation to inheritance.

B. The SIGI

Concept

9. The 2012 SIGI is composed of five sub-indices which each represent a distinct dimension of discrimination against women. This section sets out the theoretical justification for the SIGI sub-indices, explaining what each sub-index aims to capture and why this is development and policy-relevant.

Discriminatory family code

10. Discriminatory family code is intended to capture social institutions that limit and restrict women's decision-making power and status in the household and the family. It includes discriminatory formal and informal laws in relation to marriage, household headship, parental authority, divorce and inheritance.

11. The lack of women and girls' decision-making power and status in the family not only influences their own development but also the development of their families and children. For example, the discriminatory practice of early marriage of girls serves to limit their access to education and therefore also has an impact on their employment opportunities (UNICEF, 2005). Marrying young, particularly with large age gaps between spouses, can also lead to high rates of adolescent fertility, higher rates of infant mortality, poor maternal health and increased vulnerability to HIV (Bruce and Clark, 2004; UNFPA, 2004, UNICEF, 2006).

Restricted physical integrity

12. The second dimension, restricted physical integrity, is intended to capture social institutions that limit and restrict women and girls' control over their bodies. This includes formal and informal laws, norms and practices that fail to protect women's physical

integrity or which serve to normalise, justify and excuse practices that impinge upon women's physical integrity.

13. Women and girls' restricted control over their bodies has negative consequences for development and economic growth. The threat of violence in the home, school, workplace and community not only causes long-term physical and psychological damage but also increases the vulnerability of women and girls to poverty (World Bank, 2006; UNIFEM, 2010). Gender-based violence is connected to critical social and economic development issues such as poverty, lack of education, child mortality, child malnutrition, maternal ill-health and HIV (Heise et al., 1999: World Health Organisation, 2005; UNICEF, 2006; Sethuraman, 2008; Jones et al., 2010).

Son bias

14. The third dimension, son bias, is intended to capture unequal intra-household investments in the care, nurture and resources allocated to sons and daughters. It includes those formal and informal laws, social norms and practices which lead sons and daughters to be treated unequally, such as female infanticide, sex-selective abortions, limited access to food and education for girls, and the discriminatory allocation of paid and unpaid work in the household (UNFPA, 2007).

15. Son bias can have a range of negative implications for development outcomes. A major consequence of social norms and practices that devalue daughters is the under-investment in girls' education by their families (Jones et al., 2010). Son bias leads to gendered differences in primary and secondary enrolment, attendance and completion rates: for example, in South Asia, boys on average spend 2.5 years more in school than girls (UNICEF 2006).

Restricted resources and entitlements

16. The fourth dimension, restricted resources and entitlements, is intended to capture women's restricted access to, control of, and entitlement over economic and natural resources. This includes discriminatory laws which deny women access to land, property and credit; discriminatory customary practices in the allocation or purchase of land, natural resources and other property; and negative attitudes towards women's entrepreneurship.

17. Discrimination in access or entitlement to and control over economic resources has several negative development implications. It is well documented that improving access to economic resources is critical to increasing women's economic participation, equality and empowerment which in turn positively influences the well-being and resources of their families and communities (UNICEF, 2006; FAO, 2011).

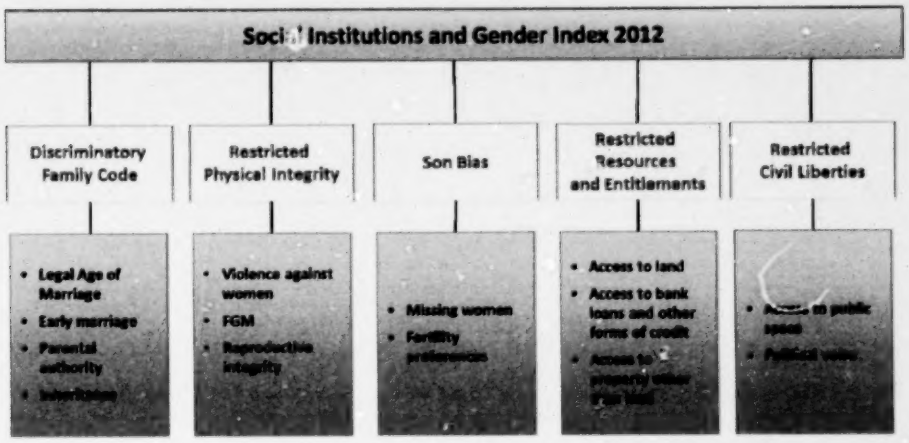
Restricted civil liberties

18. The restricted civil liberties sub-index is intended to capture restrictions in women's access to, participation and voice in the public and social spheres. It encompasses laws, practices or social norms, which restrict the mobility of girls and women and limit their access to public space, which deny women the right to vote and participate politically, women's ability to travel or apply for a passport without a male family member, as well as obstacles to women's freedom to associate.

19. Limitations on women and girls' participation and influence in the public sphere have significant implications for their social and economic opportunities. For instance, laws or social norms, which confine women and girls to the home negatively, impact on their ability to access schooling or to take up employment outside the home. The broader exclusion of women and girls from public, social, political and economic spaces through discriminatory perceptions regarding their roles in society perpetuates inequality in education, health, and other areas for both women and girls and their families (Jones et al., 2010).

C. Methodology

Figure 1
The composition of the 2012 SIGI



Source: Cerise et al., (2012)

20. The SIGI and its sub-indices scores range between 0-1 where 0 represents low discrimination and 1 represents high discrimination. The 2012 SIGI is composed of five sub-indices which each are made up of 14 variables that are selected on the basis of their conceptual relevance, whether it provides distinct information, data quality and coverage (Figure 1). The statistical association and correspondence of the variables in each sub-index is then tested to ensure the variables belong to a distinct dimension of discrimination against women. The SIGI sub-indices are then constructed by aggregating the variables using polychloric Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This method is used to extract the common information of the variables corresponding to a sub-index and allows aggregating continuous and categorical variables, as well as categorical variables having different number of categories.

21. The SIGI score is an un-weighted average of a non-linear function of the sub-indices.[2] Equal weights are given for the sub-indices, as there is no reason for valuing one of the dimensions more or less than the other: discriminatory family code does not appear to be more important than restricted physical integrity.[3] The non-linear function arises because of the assumption that gender inequality and discrimination corresponds to deprivation experienced by the affected women, and that deprivation increases more than proportionally when inequality and discrimination increases. Thus, high inequality and discrimination is penalised in every dimension. The non-linearity also means that the SIGI does not allow for total compensation among sub-indices, but permits partial compensation. Partial compensation implies that high inequality in one dimension (Son Bias, for example) can be only partially compensated with low inequality on another dimension (Physical Integrity, for example).[4]

[2] It is worth indicating that missing data are not produced. Therefore, only countries having information for all the variables included in the SIGI are ranked. Countries non-ranking in the SIGI are included in the GID.

[3] Here http://my.genderindex.org/, you can build your own index using different weights if you consider that some dimensions matter more.

[4] For further information on the technical construction of the SIGI please see Cerise et al., (2012) and Branisa et al., (2009).

$$SIGI = \frac{1}{5} Family\ Code^2 + \frac{1}{5} Son\ bias^2 + \frac{1}{5} Physical\ Integrity^2 + \frac{1}{5} Resources\ and\ Entitlements^2 + \frac{1}{5} Civil\ Liberties^2$$

1. Added value regarding existing indicators

22. While other indices such as the UNDP gender-specific measures (GEM: Gender Empowerment Measure, GDI: Gender Development Index, GII: Gender Inequality Index) and the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Index (GGG) measure gender inequality in terms of outcomes such as education attainment or labour market participation, the SIGI focuses on inequality in opportunities. Measuring discriminatory social institutions as underlying drivers of gender inequality provides additional insight into gender inequality for development policy makers and practitioners. One striking observation, for example, is that while Europe and Central Asia show lower levels of discrimination in the family compared to other regions due to equal laws and low rates of early marriage, the region shows higher levels of son bias, in comparison to other regions. This prevalence of son bias in the region is not necessarily captured in other indices such as the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Index where Europe and Central Asia perform relatively well on indicators such as the gender gaps in education and employment.

23. To assess whether the SIGI provides any additional information compared to other gender measures, we test the statistical association between the SIGI and the GDI, GEM, GII and GGG, respectively, using the Kendall tau b (McGillivray and White, 1992). The Kendall tau b test reveals that the SIGI is not redundant and provides additional information. Secondly, the SIGI is correlated with the well-known gender-specific measures. These results suggest that while the SIGI measures a similar phenomenon to the other gender indices, it provides additional information on gender inequality not captured by the other gender indices.

2. SIGI results

24. As a composite index, the SIGI provides powerful and interpretable tools to compare the level of underlying discrimination against women across non-OECD countries, allowing cross-country, regional and sub-regional analyses. The score and ranking of each country is also complemented with detailed country notes which set and describe how social institutions discriminate against women with country-specific information.[5] This is critical for policymakers to understand the country-specific situation. Moreover, it provides examples from promising initiatives to address discriminatory social institutions in other countries.

[5] Country notes are available on the SIGI website http://my.genderindex.org/.

Figure 2
The 2012 SIGI scores, worst and best performers by region

Source: Cerise et al., (2012)

25. Figure 2 presents the SIGI scores by region, as well as best and worst performers. Latin America and the Caribbean[6] is the highest performing region in the 2012 SIGI rankings. This is explained by several positive changes over the last few decades. The top performing country in the region is Argentina, while the lowest ranking is Nicaragua. East Asia and the Pacific[7] is the second best-performing region in the overall SIGI. With the exceptions of Laos and Papua New Guinea, early marriage is declining and inheritance rights are equal for men and women. Eastern Europe and Central Asia[8] is the third highest performing region, followed by South Asia[9]. In both, son preference is an important concern. The Middle East and North Africa[10] is the second lowest ranking region, ranked above Sub-Saharan Africa.[11] Morocco is the highest ranked country, following changes in its family law and recognition of sexual harassment in the workplace, for example. Finally, Sub-Saharan Africa shows the poorest performance, with nine out of 10 bottom-ranking countries. It is worth indicating the heterogeneity within the region: South Africa is ranked

[6] Latin America and the Caribbean includes: Argentina; Bolivia; Brazil; Colombia; Costa Rica; Cuba; Dominican Republic; Ecuador; El Salvador; Guatemala; Haiti; Honduras; Jamaica; Nicaragua; Panama; Paraguay; Peru; Trinidad and Tobago; Uruguay; and Venezuela.

[7] East Asia and the Pacific includes: Cambodia; China; Chinese Taipei; Fiji; Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of China; Indonesia; Democratic People's Republic of Korea; People's Democratic Republic of Lao; Malaysia; Mongolia; Myanmar; Papua New Guinea; Philippines; Singapore; Thailand; Timor-Leste; and Viet Nam.

[8] Europe and Central Asia includes: Albania; Armenia; Azerbaijan; Belarus; Bosnia and Herzegovina; Croatia; Georgia; Kazakhstan; Kyrgyzstan; The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia; Republic of Moldova; Russian Federation; Serbia; Tajikistan; Turkmenistan; Ukraine; and Uzbekistan.

[9] South Asia includes: Afghanistan; Bangladesh; Bhutan; India; Nepal; Pakistan; and Sri Lanka.

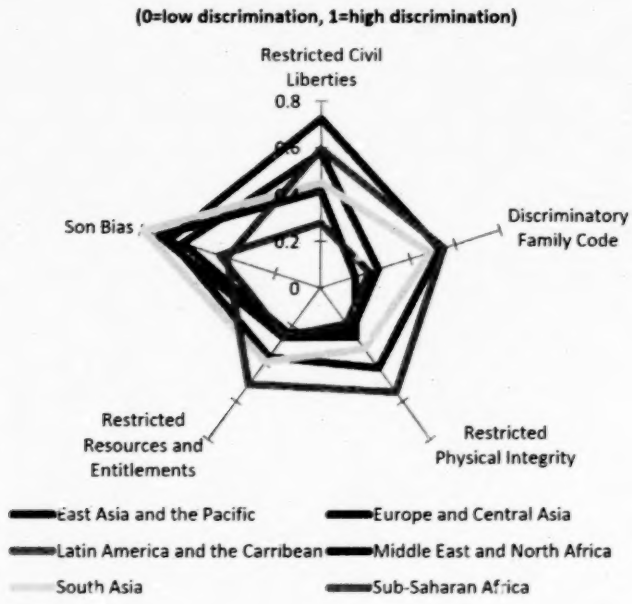
[10] Middle East and North Africa includes: Algeria; Bahrain; Egypt; Iran; Iraq; Jordan; Kuwait; Lebanon; Libyan Arab Jamahiriya; Morocco; Palestinian Authority; Oman; Saudi Arabia; Syrian Arab Republic; Tunisia; United Arab Emirates; and Yemen.

[11] Sub-Saharan Africa includes: Angola; Benin; Botswana; Burkina Faso; Burundi; Cameroon; Central African Republic; Chad; Congo; The Democratic Republic of the Congo; Côte d'Ivoire; Equatorial Guinea; Eritrea; Ethiopia; Gabon; Gambia; Ghana; Guinea; Guinea-Bissau; Kenya; Lesotho; Liberia; Madagascar; Malawi; Mali; Mauritania; Mauritius; Mozambique; Namibia; Niger; Nigeria; Rwanda; Senegal; Sierra Leone; Somalia; South Africa; Sudan; Swaziland; United Republic of Tanzania; Togo; Uganda; Zambia; and Zimbabwe.

in the top 10, thanks to particular efforts to remove discrimination against women under the dual legal system.

26. While a composite indicator gives a full picture of gender inequality in social institutions and provides simple comparisons to illustrate complex issues, it is policy-relevant to look at the sub-index level in order to understand the degree of discrimination faced by women in each of the dimensions and to establish targets. The 2012 SIGI results show that there are significant regional differences across the sub-indices (Fig. 3). For instance, Latin America and the Caribbean shows a strong performance across all sub-indices of the SIGI due to decreasing prevalence of early marriage, improving women's political participation and significant progress on laws to address violence against women, although enforcement remains a challenge.

Figure 3
Regional differences by SIGI sub-indices



Source: Cerise et al., (2012)

27. The SIGI data shows regional differences in the dimension of Son Bias. South Asia shows the highest level of discrimination in this area, followed by Europe and Central Asia, the Middle East and North Africa and East Asia and the Pacific. Similar regional differences can be observed for the Restricted Physical Integrity sub-index. Sub-Saharan Africa shows the highest level of discrimination in this area, followed by the Middle East and North Africa. Despite progress across both regions in laws to address violence against women, in Sub-Saharan Africa, 12 countries remain without laws to address domestic violence. The lack of legal protection is compounded by widespread attitudes that normalise domestic violence - over 75% of women in Guinea, Ethiopia, Somalia, Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Mali agree that domestic violence is justified in some circumstances. The Middle East and North Africa region shows the highest level of discrimination for the Restricted Civil Liberties sub-index. This can be attributed to restrictions on women's access to public space and low levels of women's participation in the political sphere. In Yemen for example, women cannot leave the house without permission of their husband or male guardian, and a woman is unable to obtain a personal identity card or passport without the consent of her guardian.

III. Development-relevance for MDGs and gender equality in outcomes

28. Applying the SIGI can illuminate the relationship between discriminatory social institutions and development outcomes, particularly those related to gender equality. Understanding the connections between discrimination against women and development is critical for the design of effective policies and the allocation of donor resources that target the drivers of gender inequality. Too often, policies and programmes fail to tackle the deeply embedded social norms and practices that continue to undermine progress towards gender equality. Discriminatory social institutions affect not only female well-being but also gender inequality and development outcomes through their impact on household behaviour and public life. Here, we share a few examples of how discriminatory social institutions relate to women's employment outcomes, educational attainment, health outcomes and governance. These examples show how the SIGI may be a critical tool for policymaking and the post-2015 agenda.

A. Gender inequality in social institutions and labour outcomes

29. The "feminisation of bad quality jobs" means that in addition to lower access to the labour market, it is more difficult for women to find good jobs in the formal sector (INED, 2000). This could be explained by lower access to education and training, higher job interruption related to maternity and child rearing, as well as discriminatory social institutions (Luci et al., 2012). Indeed, discriminatory social institutions which undermine women's position in the family may mean that women are less able to negotiate paid work with caring responsibilities. Violence against women has also been found to be another social institution negatively associated with female employment (Kimerling et al., 2009; Alexander, 2011). Similarly, restrictions on women's access to public space, such as laws stipulating that husbands have the sole authority to choose the family's place of residence, as well as limitations on women's access to economic resources, including land and credit, both negatively influence women's employment opportunities.

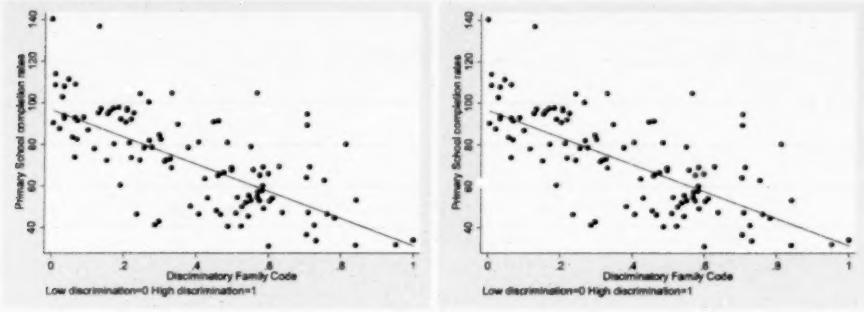
30. Discriminatory social institutions often reflect social norms that reinforce stereotypes of women as inferior, less able or less deserving of quality jobs. Thus, in countries with higher gender discrimination, higher inequality in labour outcomes can be expected. This conclusion is critical, not only for women, but also for the national economy, since several studies have found that expanding women's access to quality employment opportunities is important for economic growth and development (Klasen and Lamanna, 2009; Cerise et al., 2012).

31. Examining the relationship between the 2012 SIGI, its sub-indices and indicators with women's employment outcomes shows that discriminatory social institutions hinder women's economic empowerment: the higher the SIGI score (higher gender discrimination), the lower the female labour market participation (in absolute and relative terms), the higher the gender labour segregation and the higher the women's share in low paid and poor quality jobs (Luci et al., 2012). This means that social institutions related to gender inequality are additional barriers to women's economic empowerment, not only because of their impact on education, but also by lowering females' status in the public and private spheres. Hence, improving women's access to economic opportunities implies improving their access to inputs (education, health, etc.), as well as addressing social norms.

1. The double dividend of women's empowerment on education

Figure 4

Lower discrimination is correlated with lower gender gap in education and higher educational attainment



Source: OECD Development Centre (2012); GID (OECD, 2012) and World Development Indicators (World Bank, 2011).

Note: The model control for GDP and standards determinant of gender gap in education. See OECD Development Centre (2012) for detailed information.

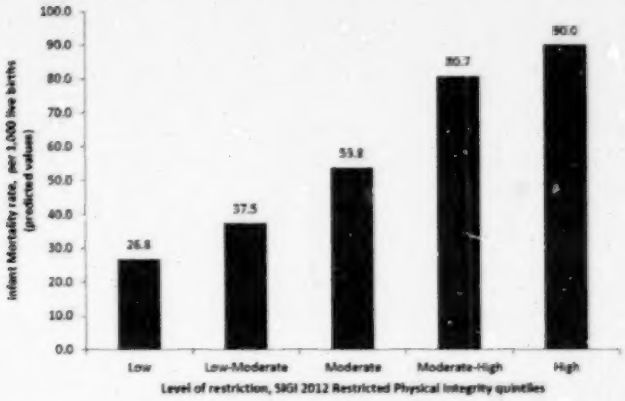
32. Education is a cornerstone of the MDG framework, recognising that investing in human capital is a gateway to poverty reduction and development. Discriminatory social institutions can negatively influence educational attainment in several ways. Firstly, discriminatory practices such as early marriage or sexual harassment can lead girls to leave their studies early. Secondly, son preference can manifest itself in parents prioritising the education of boys over girls. Finally, discrimination against women in the family and household limits their ability to make choices to safeguard the health, education and welfare of their children, thereby having a negative inter-generational effect on educational attainment.

33. Examining the relationship between the SIGI 2012, its sub-indices and indicators and educational attainment shows a strong correlation between the two. With respect to the gender gap in education, countries with higher levels of discrimination are those with a greater gender gap in secondary school enrolment rates. Looking at primary school completion rates, discrimination in the family appears to be a particularly pertinent dimension of discrimination against women linked to poor primary school completion rates. This indicates that where women have greater status and power in the family, children are more likely to complete primary school. As shown by Figure 4, the benefits of changing discriminatory social institutions are two-fold: first, in closing the gender gap in education and second, in improving education outcomes overall (Cerise et al., 2012).

2. Improving the female situation and child health outcomes

34. Improving child health outcomes is also a cornerstone of the current MDGs framework. While many countries are on-track to meet the targets of this goal, UNICEF (2012) estimates that 19,000 children under age five were dying every day in 2011. Several studies have demonstrated the link between aspects of women's empowerment and child health and mortality (Hossain et al., 2007; Allendorf, 2007; Bhagowalia et al., 2012). As such, it can be expected that discriminatory social institutions are related to child mortality (Cerise and Francavilla (2012)).

Figure 5
The higher restriction on women's physical integrity, the higher child mortality rates



Source: Cerise and Francavilla (2012); GID (OECD, 2012) and World Development Indicators (World Bank, 2011).

Note: The model control for standard determinant of child mortality. See Cerise and Francavilla (2012) for detailed information

35. To understand which dimensions of discrimination against women are linked with child mortality, the relationship between infant mortality rates and the SIGI and its sub-indices are analysed. A linear regression model is used, controlling for the fertility rate, country income level and urbanisation. When all sub-indices are included in the model, the Restricted Physical Integrity sub-index is found to be a positive and significant determinant. This indicates that countries with high levels of restrictions on women's physical integrity also have high levels of infant mortality. Countries with high levels of restrictions on women's physical integrity have an average infant mortality rate of more than three times the rate for countries with low levels of restrictions (Figure 5).

3. Promoting gender equality and better governance

36. Discriminatory social institutions do not only influence household behaviour, they also influence the women's place in public and political life. Assuming that women and men have equal skills, restricted access to opportunities, power and resources implies that efficient women will be excluded from the public and political sphere, in favour of less efficient men. This implies negative effects on the country's governance (Branisa et al. 2010). Moreover, some studies shows that women are less corrupt, less egoistic, more risk-averse and more prone to follow rules than men what have positive impact on governance (World Bank, 2001; Dollar et al., 2001; Swamy et al., 2001). Given their community-oriented socialization, women are more likely to take productive decisions that benefit to the social group (Chattopadhyay and Duflo, 2001). Therefore, the higher the rates of women in the political sphere, the more rule oriented and responsive the political system (Branisa et al. 2010). Moreover, women's collective action has played a major role in increasing the quality of political systems (Waylen, 1993; Tripp, 2001).

37. Using the Kaufmann et al. (2008) Governance Indicators, the SIGI and its subindices, Branisa et al. (2010) show that higher levels of gender inequality, especially in civil liberties, are associated with lower levels of voice and accountability, as well as rule of law. Hence promoting gender equality may be a tool to improve governance, which in turns has a great impact on development (World Bank, 2001).

IV. The SIGI's role for policymaking

A. Making the invisible visible at the international level

38. The first lessons learned from the SIGI experiences in collecting data on gender discrimination in social institutions is showing that is possible to measure social institutions and quantify qualitative aspects of gender inequality. This lesson allows designing policy at the international level as well as at the national level. The SIGI sub-indices shed light on deeply entrenched social norms and practices, such as violence against women and discrimination in the family, which are fundamental barriers to women's empowerment yet often overlooked. While the SIGI attempts to capture these 'hidden' dimensions of gender inequality, one limitation for measuring discriminatory social institutions is the availability, coverage and quality of data. At the international level, including discriminatory social institutions such as violence against women, son bias or women's access to resources in the post-2015 development agenda would not only mean that these important indicators of gender inequality are tracked, but that there is commitment to statistical capacity building to improve the data sources in these areas.

B. Having a more tangible direct impact on policymaking at the national level

39. At the national level, it highlights the necessity to collect data on country-specific aspects of discriminatory social institutions. In partnership with the Austrian Development Agency and the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), the OECD Development Centre is currently developing a SIGI for Uganda. This on-going project is a pilot for a wider project: 'Tackling the underlying drivers of gender inequality in Uganda and Eastern Africa'. It provides an in-depth study of discrimination against women in Uganda through the application of the SIGI to the national and sub-national contexts; cross-country comparisons of discrimination against women for Eastern and Southern Africa in the 2014 SIGI; policy dialogue across Eastern Africa on effective policies to address discrimination against women; and technical exchanges on the collection of data on discrimination against women in Eastern and Southern African countries. The project hopes to spread to other Eastern African countries to inspire dialogue amongst policymakers and statisticians on gender indicators on discriminatory social institutions.

40. The first element of this project investigates how a Uganda-specific SIGI could be developed that both expands on the indicators in each of the SIGI domains so as to capture dimensions of discriminatory social institutions that are relevant to Uganda, and allows for comparison of performance on these indicators across different parts of Uganda. More specifically, the SIGI for Uganda would allow for comparison across the ten clusters/regions, each with their own cultural and traditional norms and practices, which UBOS uses as the basis for design and analysis of its standard household surveys and for certain SIGI indicators to be embedded into national strategies for gender equality and national development plans.

41. The indicators used in the standard SIGI are taken from existing data sources, including existing surveys. However, given that these are multi-country surveys, their data can only provide limited insight into those issues and specificities unique to Uganda, in particular at the sub-national level. For this reason, the in-depth study will thus include a specially designed household survey that will collect additional indicators that relate to the five SIGI domains. Several of these indicators involve aspects which have not previously been explored in past surveys. The survey will thus be preceded by a set of focus groups discussions. The findings from these discussions will not be used as the basis for scoring of indicators as focus groups do not produce findings that are sufficiently reliable and

representative of the population. However, they will be used to help UBOS and its partners in framing the relevant questions in a way that uses terminology which will be understood by respondents and that will capture the relevant social institutions and practices.

C. Measuring improvement: policies can change discriminatory social institutions

42. Detailed information from other countries or regions through the SIGI may help policymakers by presenting a concrete illustration of how improvements have been implemented. The SIGI shows that countries have made promising progress in tackling discriminatory social institutions in some areas. For countries scored in the 2012 SIGI, the average prevalence of early marriage across countries has decreased to 17% in 2012 from 21% in 2009; the number of countries with specific legislation to combat domestic violence has more than doubled from 21 in 2009 to 53 in 2012; 29 countries have quotas to promote women's political participation at both the national and sub-national levels.

43. Despite positive steps, pervasive and persistent social institutions continue to limit women's and girls' horizons in all regions ranked in the 2012 SIGI: 86 out of 121 countries have discriminatory inheritance laws or practices; women's reproductive autonomy is restricted: on average, 1 in 5 women has an unmet need for family planning. Despite the introduction of laws to combat violence against women, attitudes that normalise such violence persist. On average, for the countries scored in the SIGI, around 1 in 2 women believes domestic violence is justified in certain circumstances.

44. As shown previously, the low score in the SIGI and its sub-indices for Latin America and the Caribbean may be explained by promising initiatives. For example, in 2007, Venezuela enacted a law prohibiting rape, spousal rape, domestic violence and sexual harassment which not only includes punishment and prosecution, but also requires that the authorities implement a programme to raise awareness and change attitudes. Following the law, Special Courts for Violence against women were created, which led to a steep increase in recorded complaints of violence against women in the country.

45. The success of East Asia and the Pacific in achieving the second highest regional ranking in the SIGI is related to the implementation of programmes tackling discrimination against women and girls in social norms in a number of its countries. For example, the "Care for Girls" programme in China between 2003 and 2005 aimed to reduce the imbalanced sex-ratio by public awareness campaigns, supporting girl-only families and strengthening data systems. The programme contributed to a reduction in the sex-ratio at birth in 2005.

46. Improvements of the female situation through political change were observed in less performing regions as well. The 'Safe Age of Marriage' programme in Yemen funded by USAID sought to raise awareness of the social and health consequences of early marriage at the community level in two districts. The programme concentrated on building community support for keeping girls in school as an alternative to early marriage and on securing support from religious leaders. The programme included working with girls aged 9 to 15, who developed and performed school plays and produced school magazines to raise awareness of the risks associated with early marriage, and awarding prizes to "model families" who delayed their daughters' marriages and supported their completion of secondary education.

47. Even in SSA there were considerable inroads in political change. The IMAGE (Intervention with Micro-finance for AIDS and Gender Equity) programme in South Africa provides micro-finance plus participatory training on gender, violence and HIV to poor rural women. Initial evaluation shows a 55% reduction in domestic violence.

48. These examples emphasised by the SIGI show to what extent policymakers may change discriminatory social institutions in order to promote gender equality, along with economic development and poverty reduction. By measuring the invisible, the SIGI provides evidence not only on the level of discrimination, but also on the improvement and/or deterioration generated over time.

V. Modifications for 2014 and beyond

A. Inclusion of OECD countries

49. In 2012, the criteria for countries to be included in the SIGI were that they were non-OECD countries; had a population of more than 1 million; and had a complete set of data for all variables (missing data for variables were not estimated). However, it is critical to define a universal goal, targeted by a universal index on discriminatory social institutions, at the international level. This is a first reason to cover OECD countries in the SIGI.

50. Why expand the SIGI to OECD countries? While the SIGI has received considerable attention from policymakers, the media and the public, users frequently question the exclusion of OECD countries. Moreover the limited coverage restricts the usability of the index in research. We are therefore convinced that the usefulness and authority of the index would be strengthened if it also covers OECD countries. While the variables included in the SIGI have been selected with a focus on issues that are typically most pressing and relevant in non-OECD countries, many of the concepts are still of high relevance to OECD countries as well (e.g. violence against women, workplace rights related to maternity leave, family roles, etc.). For example, there is still a huge concern in Europe on gender-based violence: in Norway and Finland 27% and 30% of women declared having been victims of physical violence by an intimate male partner, in 2003 and 1997 respectively (World Bank, 2010). Social institutions in general (norms, culture, laws and practices) are also critical for understanding questions of gender equality in OECD countries. Since discriminatory social institutions are a universal phenomenon, policymaking needs a universal index.

51. In addition to the conceptual relevance of extending the SIGI to OECD countries, doing so will benefit the OECD. Indeed, the OECD plays a leading role in constructing innovative measures for assessing societal progress, going beyond typical economic and financial indicators where measures of gender equality have gained increasing prominence. An index measuring social institutions and how it affects gender equality, including in OECD countries, would build on and expand the visibility of these initiatives. Moreover, if it is deemed necessary to go beyond the existing variables for a meaningful measure of social institutions and gender equality in OECD countries, and the relevant data is already available from existing OECD work and from partners. The Development Centre previously made attempts to measure SIGI variables in OECD countries for the 2009 SIGI. The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU), together with the International Finance Corporation (IFC), built the Women's Economic Opportunity Index, which applied the SIGI scoring scheme for several variables to many OECD countries (restrictive access to credit and property ownership rights; restrictive civil liberties, such as freedom of movement and political voice; existence of laws protecting women against violence; and reproductive integrity). Finally, the OECD is increasingly working on issues of mutual interest to both OECD and non-OECD countries and expanding the geographical coverage of its work. Gender equality is an important issue of such mutual, global interest where a broader perspective and geographical coverage would greatly enrich the work and position of the organisation.

52. Nevertheless, including OECD countries in SIGI rankings requires caution. This exercise faces challenges regarding comparison and meaning requirements. On one hand, our aim is to guarantee comparisons over space and time keeping the same framework and

the same variables for OECD and non-OECD countries. On the other hand, using the same set of indicators across the world questions their meaning and validity: are those indicators equally relevant and meaningful in all countries in the world? For example, access to land ownership is less pertinent in industrialized countries than in agricultural ones. Is it useful to include indicators where gender gaps have either vanished or even reversed in OECD-countries? For instance, inheritance rights are equal in almost European OECD countries. Working closely with a panel of experts and advisers, instead of expanding SIGI rankings to OECD countries, the OECD Development Centre decided to include them in the GID database and collect only SIGI variables that are pertinent for OECD countries. Hence country profiles for the OECD countries will be available, as well as quantitative and qualitative data.

B. Time use as an indicator of discriminatory social institutions

53. The OECD Development Centre plans to launch a new line of research on time use as an indicator of discriminatory social norms. This additional indicator would capture the unequal burden of unpaid care between men and women and make visible the invisible double female workload. This new line of research contributes to the debate regarding time poverty as a deficit of spare time.

54. In couples, as income and education increase, female and male time uses converge, mainly driven by a decline in hours devoted to housework by women, rather than an increase in hours among men. However, overall differences persist among the well-off and educated: for most couples around the world, women contribute more than 60% of the time devoted to housework and care, irrespective of their employment status, income or education levels. While gender disparities in time allocation may be explained by socio-demographic and economic factors, half to two-thirds of the difference remains unexplained (Berniell and Sánchez-Páramo 2011). The inclusion of time use data in the GID database assumes that this persistent unexplained intrahousehold division of labour may be explained by persistent discriminatory social institutions.

55. We then propose to include the female to male ratio of time devoted to housework and of total working hours, including both paid and unpaid work.

VI. Conclusion

56. There are a number of major implications to the measurement of discriminatory social institutions: the SIGI draws attention to aspects of gender inequality that are often invisible, yet powerful drivers of economic and social outcomes for women and girls. As such, discriminatory social institutions should be measured not only because they provide information on critical and often overlooked dimensions of gender inequality, but also because they matter for development outcomes.

57. Given the gaps in quality, comparability and coverage of data, greater statistical capacity building on discriminatory social institutions and gender equality is needed. High quality data with comprehensive coverage will ensure that decision-makers have the information they need to design policies and allocate resources in a manner that effectively promotes gender equality and consequently improves development outcomes. In particular, there is a need to improve sub-national data on discriminatory social institutions in order to provide deeper insight into how they play out in the context of regional differences.

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Item 3 of the provisional agenda
Experiences in collecting and using gender indicators for policymaking

Thematic area about gender equality – indicators used for monitoring the goal for gender equality

Note by the Statistics Sweden*

Summary

To follow up gender equality policies and the set objective, Statistics Sweden was assigned by the Government to produce a proposal for indicators of results linked to the goal for gender equality. The 88 indicators are available on Statistics Sweden's website via a portal. The Government Offices have chosen 26 indicators that are to be followed up each year in the budget proposition. Other indicators are used as a complement.

I. Background

1. Labour market policy was the first area to be touched upon, but later gender equality policy spread to areas such as education, social insurance, democracy and family policy. It was not until the 1990s that men's violence against women became one of the central issues for gender equality, as it is today. Now nearly all areas of politics are affected by gender equality policy. In the beginning of the 1970s it became a policy area of its own.

2. The requirement for statistics about women and men increased and Statistics Sweden has published statistics on women and men in many areas that are pedagogical and

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easy to access. The booklet "Women and men in Sweden" was published for the first time in 1984 and was a huge success, leading to visibility of inequalities. Today the booklet is published every other year in Swedish and English.

3. In the beginning of the 1990s it was decided that all official statistics based on individuals were to be broken down by sex. This was also written in the ordinance for the official statistics. On behalf of the Government of Sweden, Statistics Sweden has been assigned to follow up the compliance to this section in the ordinance of the official statistics. Statistics broken down by sex implies that all information is to be presented by sex in all combinations of variables, that is, sex should be the overall basis for classification. Every other year Statistics Sweden provides feedback to a selection of government agencies that produce official statistics based on individuals.

4. The easy-to-read booklet about women and men together with the requirements for statistics broken down by sex became important issues that were taken up in the Platform for Action that was created after the fourth women's conference in Beijing.

II. Swedish gender equality policy

5. Since the middle of the 2000s, gender mainstreaming has been the strategy that the Government Offices uses to direct the work for gender equality.

At about the same time the Parliament decided on a new overall goal for gender equality: "Women and men must have equal power to shape society and their own lives". This implies among other things the following sub-goals:

- An equal distribution of power and influence
- Economic equality between women and men
- Equal distribution of unpaid care and household work.
- Men's violence against women must stop

6. The need for follow-up occurred when it was difficult to assess if the measures of the gender equality policies had any effect. The Parliament criticised the follow-up of results by the Government on several occasions and wanted to see an improved and in depth follow-up and evaluation of gender equality policies.

III. Portal

7. To follow up gender equality policies and the set objective, Statistics Sweden was assigned by the government to produce a proposal for indicators of results. These indicators are linked to the four sub-goals. Together with the statistics within three in-depth areas, the indicators are available on Statistics Sweden's website via a so-called portal. The three in-depth areas are employment, entrepreneurship and education. The information is updated every year on two occasions in order to be as current as possible. The portal also includes tables in Excel format, one for each area, for users who want to do their own processing. All statistics that has been published is available on the website so it is possible to create time series. Since the need for statistics changes over time, the portal has the flexibility to allow changing or increasing the number of tables in the existing areas. In addition, it is possible to create new in-depth areas.

IV. Requirements for indicators

8. An indicator is a quantitative measure, usually a ratio. An indicator is not an absolute truth, and always needs to be interpreted and assessed based on a larger context. Statistics Sweden chose to present the indicators more than as ratios. The reason is that a ratio can be blunt and undifferentiated. The indicators thus consist of tables.

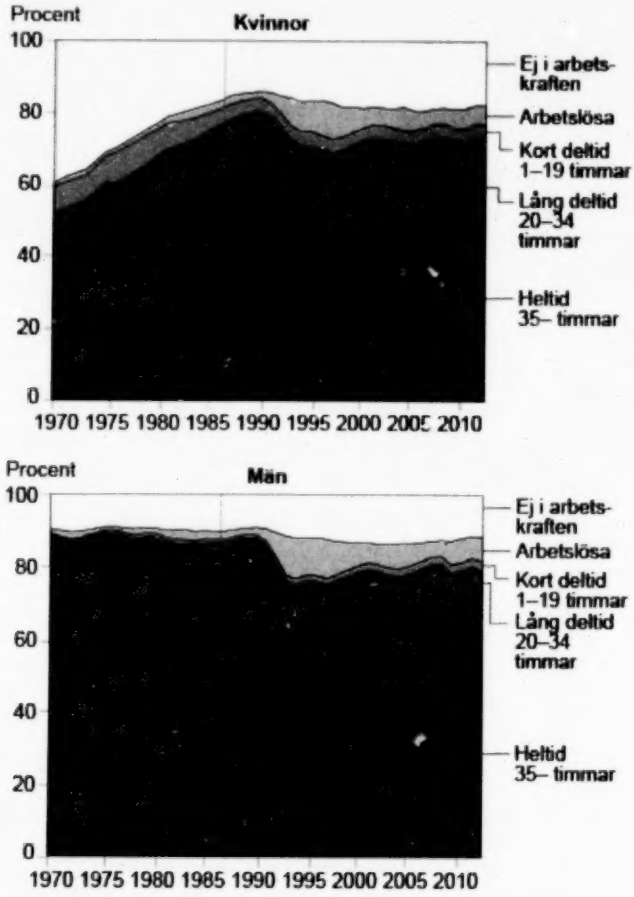
9. An indicator should fulfil a number of criteria to be able to be used for follow-up over a relatively long period of time. They should be simple, relevant, valid, able to be repeated, reliable and sensitive to changes. The indicators nearly always show information about women/girls and men/boys respectively. They can be numbers, percentages of a whole or sex distribution.

10. Of course, all indicators are presented disaggregated by sex, except within the fourth sub-goal: "Men's violence against women must stop". In this area several persons are involved, victims and perpetrators. The statistics are based on crime codes in the statistics on reported crimes, enabling the presentation to be made by the sex of the victim in most cases. Statistics on convictions are instead based on the legislation and presentation is made by the sex of the perpetrator.

11. The indicators come from several different sources. A safe source concerning the quality and availability of data is an important criteria for the choice of indicators. The official statistics are used to the greatest extent possible, as these also fulfil significant quality requirements. The indicators are not expected to provide answers to why the development appears in a certain way. By and large all indicators are results indicators that are used in the assessment of progress in relation to the set goals or guidelines. They are not absolute truths but should be seen as an indication that the goal has been reached or that development is underway towards or away from the goal.

12. In several cases, the tables in the portal are in line with the statistics that Statistics Sweden has produced over a long period for the publication "Women and men in Sweden", which can be regarded as safe indicators. For example, this time series from 1970 and forward.

Persons aged 20-64 by activity status and hours normally worked 1970-2012
Percentage distribution



Source: Labour Force Surveys (LFS), Statistics Sweden

V. A follow-up system for gender equality policy

13. Gender equality policy lacks a recurring and consistent follow-up based on indicators. This type of follow-up system would provide better conditions to take advantage of the results and experience based on the current policy.

The follow-up system mainly aims to follow up development on the national level. Follow-up is already being done on the regional and local levels, and a total follow-up system is under development. The follow-up aims to be strategic and predictable with respect to the aspects that are followed up. Indicators and the in-depth gender equality statistics in the thematic area that Statistics Sweden has built up are important parts of the follow-up system.

14. The Government Offices have chosen 26 of the 88 indicators. These are to be followed up each year in the budget proposition. Other indicators are used as a complement. In addition, there are a number of tables under the heading in-depth studies. These tables and the indicators besides the 26 main indicators will be used in more in-depth follow-ups.

A. Sub-goal 1: An equal distribution of power and influence

15. The first sub-goal states that women and men must have the same rights and opportunities to be active citizens and be able to form the terms for decision-making. Five indicators are selected to follow up this sub-goal:

- Compositions of the Parliament after elections 1921-20xx
- Chairpersons in municipal and county councils
- Boards and management in listed companies
- Managers in the private sector by type of manager
- Managers in the public sector by type of manager

16. An even representation of women and men is no guarantee that the real power will be equally distributed among the sexes, but it is a prerequisite. The goal aims at political rights as well as the power that lies outside of the democratic system of government. An example of this kind of power is the power that is exercised by enterprises. A government investigation from 2007 revealed that the sex distribution for leading positions varied in a systematic way among levels of society, professional areas and heads for various operations. Generally, visible positions that are affected by political measures have an even sex distribution, while the reverse applies to positions without public scrutiny, for which recruitment is done by informal choices with limited transparency. The central level often has a more even sex distribution than the regional and local levels. There are also differences between the areas such as politics on the one hand and the business sector on the other. Central government agencies often have a more even sex distribution than municipalities and privately run operations. In addition, there are also differences between different types of positions. Managing directors, executive directors and chairpersons are often men. Women in leading positions are often board members.

Compositions of Parliament after elections 1921-2010

B. Sub-goal 2: Economic equality between women and men

17. Women and men must have the same opportunities and conditions with regard to education and paid work that provide them with the means to achieve lifelong economic independence.

18. Ten indicators are selected to follow up this sub-goal:

- From income from employment and business to individual disposable income for persons aged 20 – 64
- Individual disposable income by type of household and number of children

- Days for which parental allowance paid 1974-20xx
- Women's wages as per cent of men's by sector, before and after weighting 1974-20xx
- Segregation index by age
- Employed persons aged 20 – 64 by age and degree of attachment to the labour market
- Persons aged 20-64 by age and hours normally worked as full-time and part-time
- Upper secondary school graduates by programme or attachment to programme
- Ongoing cases of sickness benefit days in December 1974-20xx
- Persons with sickness and activity compensation by age.

19. A key feature of Swedish gender equality policy is that women and men must have the same possibilities to support themselves through paid work. Women and men are individually responsible for both support and care. Taxes and social insurances are tied to the individual to allow women and men to be able to both work and take care of a family. The lack of gender equality does not mainly deal with access to education and the labour market, but rather the differences in basic conditions, possibilities and terms concerning education and paid work.

Days for which parental allowance paid 1974–2011

Number of days in 1 000s and proportion (%) drawn by women and men

Year	Allowance			Temporary allowance		
	Number	Distribution by sex		Number	Distribution by sex	
		Women	Men		Women	Men
1974	19 017	100	0	689	60	40
1980	27 020	95	5	3 042	63	37
1985	33 193	94	6	4 156	67	33
1990	48 292	93	7	5 731	66	34
1995	47 026	90	10	4 890	68	32
2000	35 661	88	12	4 403	66	34
2005	42 659	80	20	4 421	64	36
2011	50 284	76	24	5 044	64	36

Source: Swedish Social Insurance Agency

C. Sub-goal 3: Equal distribution of unpaid care and household work

20. Women and men shall take the same responsibility for household work and have the same opportunities to give and receive care on equal terms. Four indicators are selected to follow up this sub-goal:

- Days for which parental allowance paid 1974-20xx (same table as sub-goal 2)
- Time use for persons aged 20-64
- Time spent on unpaid work for persons aged 20-64 by life cycle
- Reason for part-time work for persons aged 20-64.

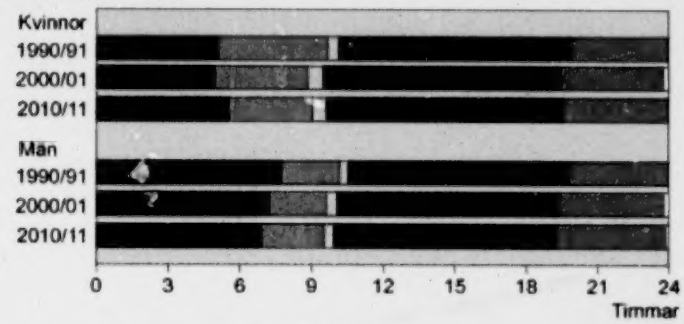
21. A cornerstone in Swedish welfare and gender equality policy is that people should not have to choose between having paid work and having a family. Parental allowance, child care and care of the elderly have had considerable significance for Sweden's labour force participation rate among women and a high fertility rate. Both women and men are

expected to take the same responsibility for unpaid work. The Time Use Survey gives a picture of everyday life of women and men. The survey has been conducted three times: 1990/91, 2000/2001 and 2010/11. We are now able to make comparisons about events over a 20 year period. The results concerning the distribution of unpaid work is closely related to sub-goal two, which means that the interventions in the policy areas that concern sub-goal two have considerable significance even for sub-goal three.

Time use for persons aged 20-64, 1990/91, 2000/01 and 2010/11

Hours and minutes

An average weekday



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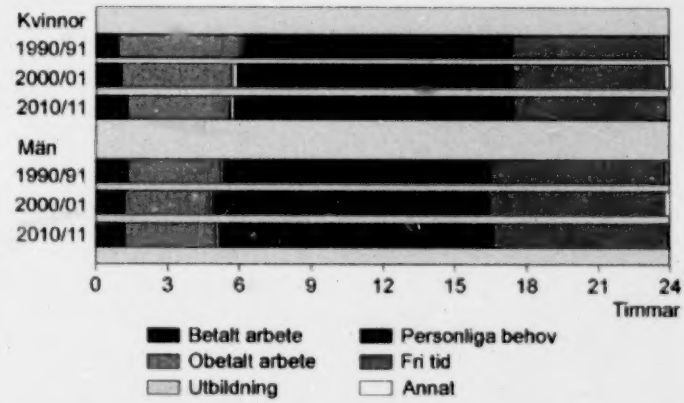


Källa: Tidsanvändningsundersökningen, SCB

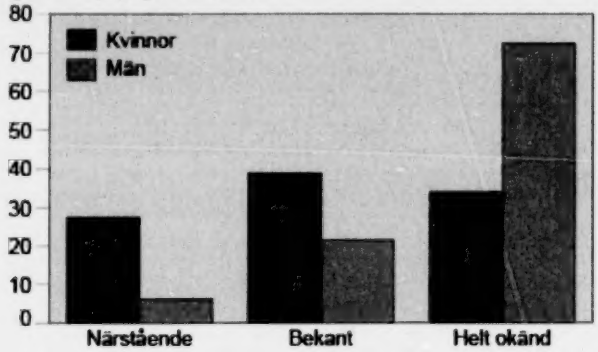
D. Sub-goal 4: Men's violence against women must stop

22. Women and men, girls and boys shall have equal rights and opportunities in terms of physical integrity. Seven indicators are selected to follow up this target:

- Persons aged 16-79 subjected to assault by place
- Persons aged 16-79 subjected to assault by relation to perpetrator
- Persons 16-79 year who have been subjected to sexual crimes by age
- Reported assaults
- Gross violation of a woman's integrity
- Reported rapes
- Persons found guilty by main crime.

23. In the United Nations' declaration about the abolition of violence against women, the violence that women are subjected to is described as the utmost consequence of men's dominance and women's subordination. Violence is an expression for the power structure that exists between women and men, as well as a means to maintain that power structure. To be spared from violence and abuse is a prerequisite for the enjoyment of human rights. The sub-goal includes all forms of physical, mental and sexual violence as well as threats of violence against women and girls. Included also are the efforts to combat prostitution and human trafficking for sexual purposes and honour-related violence. The concept of physical integrity means, among other things, the right and possibility to control one's own body, sexuality and reproduction.

Persons aged 16-79 subjected to assault by relationship to the perpetrator 2011
Proportion (%) of occurrences



Källa: Nationella trygghetsundersökningen (NTU), Brottsförebyggande rådet (BRÅ)

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Experiences in collecting and using gender indicators for policymaking

Women's Economic Resilience Index

Note by the Central Bureau of Statistics, Israel[1]

Summary

Under the auspices of the 2013 Herzliya Conference in Israel, Women's Economic Resilience Index was developed to inform policy and strategic debates. It's aim is to delineate the components of the economic resilience of women in Israel, and how these change over time. Different components of the index reflect areas related to politics, education, work (employment and unemployment), equality in work and entrepreneurship.

This indicator exposes some major issues in the Israeli society like work discrimination by age and the women's glass ceiling. It also show the lag of Israel in respect of the OECD countries in most of the dimensions of the index.

[1] Prepared by Yafit Alfandari, Director of Finance and Consumption Sector at the Micro Economic Department and Coordinator of gender statistics.

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I. The creation and establishment of the Women's Economic Resilience Index

1. The Women's economic Resilience Index was developed and constructed under the auspices of and as preparation for the 2013 Herzliya Conference. The Herzliya Conference, which is one of the leading conferences in Israel, has as its purpose the discussion and debate of policy and strategic issues. The conference is organized by the Institute for Policy and Strategy at the Interdisciplinary Centre (IDC) Herzliya. The conference serves as a meeting place for high-level people from Israel and the world over in the fields of government, business, security, communications, and academia, to discuss pressing national, regional, and global issues. Working papers written in anticipation of and after the conference, as well as the summaries of the discussions and recommendations that are raised there, provide leaders and policymakers with reliable, up-to-date, and professional assessments as well as policy recommendations required in order to address geopolitical, economic, and social challenges. The reports by the conference work groups and the research papers that are produced in anticipation of the conference are based on innovative methodologies that present an exact, coherent, and broad portrait of the region and the world.

2. At the thirteenth Herzliya Conference, for the first time, there was an initiative by Prof. Sharon Rabin-Margalioth (Dean, Radzyner Law School, IDC Herzliya) to bring the topic of women's economic resilience to the agenda of the conference. Toward this end, an advisory committee composed of women from various disciplines in which gender is significant was established. After the committee met twice, it was decided to initiate the construction of an index to measure women's economic resilience and to present it at the conference. Because the idea was to focus on women's strengths, it was decided to construct an index that would point at women's economic and occupational resilience and would present the empowerment of women in the economy and the job market.

3. Within this framework, a small team was formed that was charged for constructing the index. The members of the team were: Prof. Rabin-Margalioth, Dr. Tali Regev, Labour Economist from the Economy School at IDC and Yafit Alfandari, Director of Finance and Consumption Sector at the Micro Economic Department and Coordinator of gender statistics at the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics.

4. Ultimately, the team formulated a set of variables comprising the Women's Economic Resilience Index.

II. Goals of the Index

5. The Women's Economic Resilience Index has several major goals:

(a) To delineate the components of the economic resilience of women in Israel;

(b) To highlight strong and weak points in women's economic resilience and to indicate gender-related problems in Israeli society in economic areas;

(c) To identify ongoing change at women economic resilience by presenting multi-year spectrum;

(d) To attempt to discern the women's sources of strength and weakness, from an economic perspective.

III. Methodology of the Index

6. Prior to its construction, several major attributes were defined that would underlie the methodology used for the index:

- Permit international comparison – the index would be composed of international, stable, and reliable variables;
- Multi-year – the index would be able permit measurement and presentation over a number of years. One of the interest and the purpose was to present developments during the previous decade and the current decade;
- The indicators would all include comparisons of women relative to men;
- The indicators would deal with facts – objective rather than subjective measures.
- The index would measure the percentage of equality of economic resilience, with 100 per cent denoting full resilience equality between men and women, a ratio of less than 100 denoting higher resilience among men than among women, and a ratio of more than 100 denoting higher resilience among women than men.

Components of the Index:

- The index is composed of several dimensions that together provide a complete, broad portrait of the gendered job market in Israel: work variables, wage variables, education variables (human capital), empowerment variables, and business entrepreneurship variables
- Each element of the index has a different weight (based on the recommendations of the aforementioned advisory committee): work component – 35%; empowerment component – 15 per cent; entrepreneurship – 15 per cent; wage gaps – 20 per cent; and human capital – 15 per cent.
- The dimensions represent a sort of life path in terms of a woman's integration into the job market and the economic system: education → work → work conditions → advancement → entrepreneurship and empowerment.
- Within these dimensions, 10 major variables were chosen to evaluate the economic resilience of women, with each variable having equal weight within the component. The following is a list of the variables and the reasons they were chosen:

  (a) Labour force participation rate by gender – a basic economic variable of the job market, used in the work component of the economic resilience index. The rate of participation was chosen rather than the employment rate in order to identify failures and obstacles with a gender element such as women's choice to remain at home.

  (b) Labour force participation rate by gender for ages 54–65 – a variable in the work component that is intended to identify a double employment obstacles: gendered non-participation in the job market with characteristics of being older.

  (c) Married persons' labour force participation rate, by gender – a variable in the work component that is intended to identify an obstacle in women's integration in employment due to family conflicts.

  (d) Ratio between the genders of number of work hours – a variable in the work component that is intended to identify either a barrier to activity, or under-activity in the job market that stems from gender differences.

  (e) Percentage of unemployed by gender – like overall labour force participation in the job market, this is also a basic job market economic variable, found in the work component of the Economic Resilience Index.

  (f) Percentage of recipients of first degrees from universities and colleges, by gender – the variable chosen to represent human capital. Selection of this variable was slightly limited due to the term was set to international comparison.

(g) Gender pay gap (for full-time salaried workers, wage per hour) – a variable in the wage gap component. This is a basic gender gap variable. Hourly wage was chosen because it is a more exact variable than monthly or yearly wage.

(h) Percentage of senior managers in the job market – a variable in the empowerment component. This variable can indicate gender balance in economic decision-making in the Israeli economy and in general.

(i) Percentage of Parliament members by gender – another variable in the empowerment component. A central variable indicating gender balance in policy-making decisions in many areas such as welfare, employment, education, and economics.

(j) Percentage of self-employed persons who employ more than 3 workers, by gender – a variable found in the entrepreneurship component that indicates a country's economic environment in terms of encouraging entrepreneurship, innovation, and motivation for starting businesses.

IV. Data sources

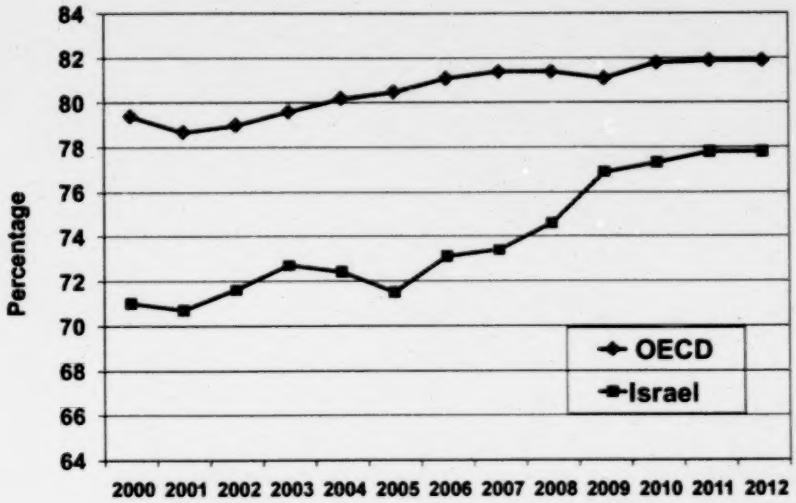
(1) The Labour Force Survey of the Israel Central Bureau of Statistics – The survey tracks ongoing developments in the labour force in Israel: its size and characteristics, employment mobility, the extent of unemployment, etc. The survey provides detailed data regarding characteristics of the civilian labour force by demographic and economic segments such as age, years of schooling, higher education, year of immigration to Israel, hours of work, industry of employment, occupation in which the person works, and the like. The survey is carried out regularly once per month and includes approximately 21,500 individuals aged 15 or over each month.

(2) Household Income and Expenditures Survey of the Israel Central Bureau of Statistics – The survey is intended to measure the standard of living of the country's population. The survey measures Israeli households' monthly expenditures on products and services (including ownership of durable goods and housing), as well as individual and household income from all sources. The survey is carried out regularly once per year, and includes approximately 10,000 households and 40,000 individuals in the sample each year.

(3) OECD and UNECE databases on the subject of gender statistics.

V. Main findings

Graph 1
Economic Resilience Index: Comparison of Years 1990–2012



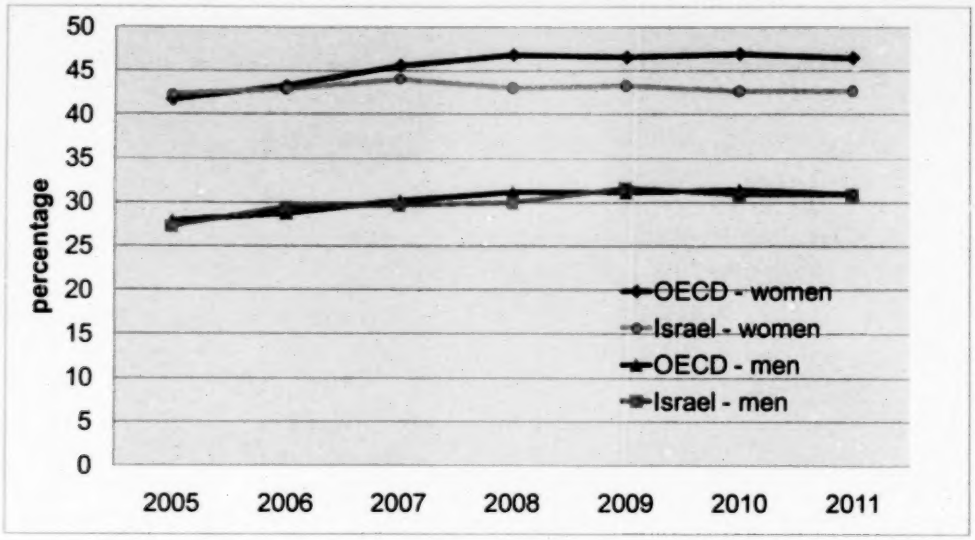
7. Graph 1 shows that that according to the criteria and variables determined for the Economic Resilience Index, Israel falls below the average of the OECD countries. However, over the years, the gap between the countries and Israel is decreasing. The following sections will present major failures and obstacles of the status of gender in Israel compared to the OECD countries by presenting notable findings from the variables that were compared.

A. Human capital component – a person's acquisition of education

8. Comparing Israel to the OECD countries reveals that the percentage of women who receive a first degree in Israel is larger than the percentage of men (see Graph 2). However, the percentage of women is lower than that in the OECD. It can also be seen that in Israel, there is a downward trend in the percentage of women receiving first degrees. It is important to note here that there was a limitation in comparing to the international data. In Israel, over the years, the percentage of women receiving higher (first and second) degrees is consistently much higher than the percentage of men.

9. From the analysis of human capital and the education variable appearing here, it can be concluded that as far as it is up to the women and under their control, women study more in order to position themselves well, and apparently also in order to find a good job in the job market at a good wage.

Graph 2
Percentage receiving first degrees, by gender – Israel compared to the OECD, 2005–2011



B. Employment component – percentage participation in the job market

10. An examination of employment rates of women in Israel compared to the OECD shows that Israel is very similar to the OECD average. Israel's employment rate of men is lower than the average in the OECD countries. This can be attributed to the demographic and religious differences between the countries. Israel includes an extremely religious group of people comprising 15 per cent of the population, who by definition do not believe in men participating in the labour force. In addition, Arab men's labour force participation rate is low against their will. However, the index and this analysis deal with women. It can be seen that from their labour force participation rate that women work and participate. A comparison that takes into account women's marital status shows that in Israel in particular, the participation of married women in the job market has increased over the years, and married women in Israel participate more than married women in the OECD countries.

11. An analysis of women's participation rates[2] in Israeli job market from the 1950s to the first decade of the 21st century shows that the women's participation rate increased by approximately 25 percentage points, from 26 per cent during the mid-1950s to more than 50 per cent at the end of the 20th century. An especially large jump occurred during the 1990s – an increase of 10 percentage points in participation rate in one decade, from 40 per cent to over 50 per cent. (graph 3)

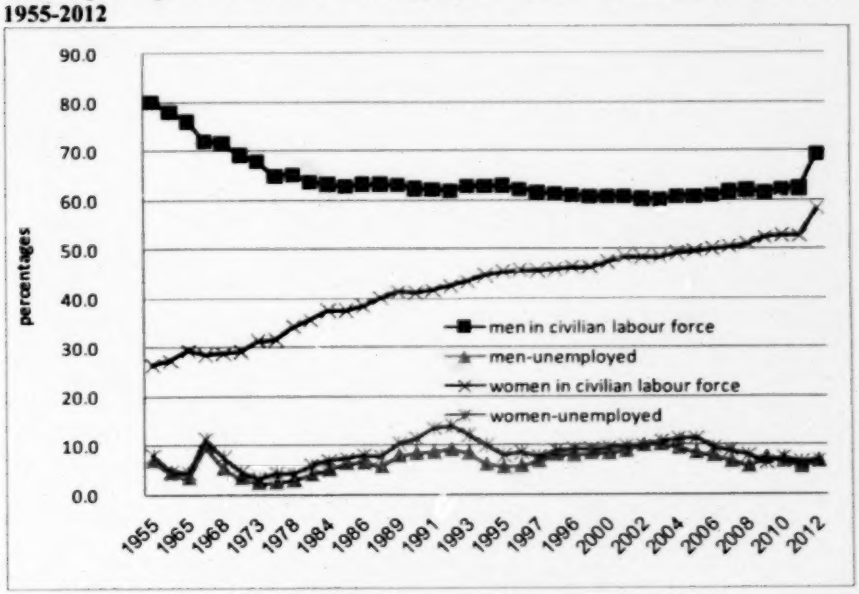
[2] Definitions of the Central Bureau of Statistics for the Labour Force Survey are as follows: Persons participating in the job market are those who are defined as being in the labour force. These are persons aged 15 and over who were "employed" or "unemployed" in the determinant week (the week ending on the Saturday preceding the interviewer's visit). **Employed**: Persons employed at any job for at least one hour for pay, profit, or other remuneration, during the determinant week; all workers in kibbutzim (whether in services or in other industries); family members who worked 15 hours or more per week without pay during the determinant week; persons staying in institutions who worked 15 hours a week or more; persons temporarily absent from work. **Unemployed**: Persons who did not work at all (even for a single hour per week), and actively sought work during the past four weeks by registering at a Labour Exchange of the Employment Service, by personal or written application to an employer, and would have been available to start work during the determinant week had suitable work been offered ("availability for work").

12. Another change over the years in Israel concerns the percentage of unemployed out of those participating in the labour force. Whereas up to the mid-1990s, women's unemployment rate was higher than that of men, starting from these years the gap narrowed, and men's unemployment rate was almost identical to that of women.

13. Another datum is that the number of work hours in Israel is among the highest compared to the average in the OECD countries, both for women and for men. The gap is even more evident for women.

Graph 3

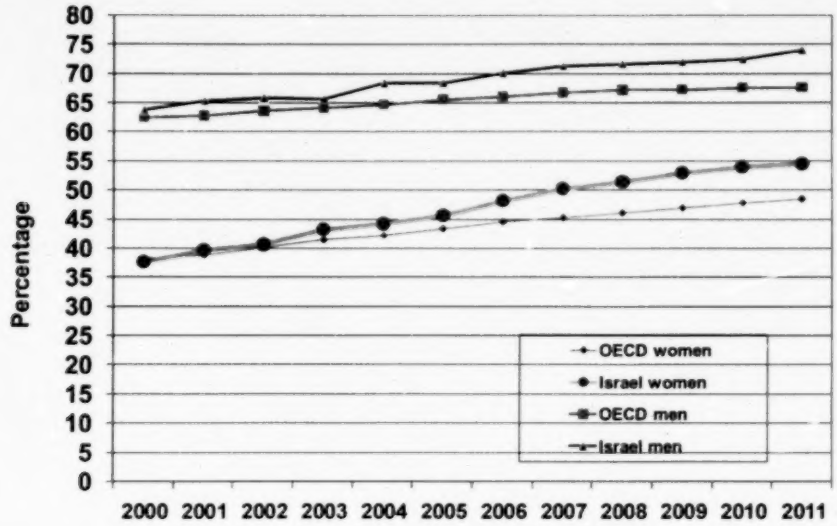
Gender participation rates and the unemployed in the Israeli civilian job market, 1955-2012



14. The main obstacle that can be identified is in the participation rates of older women. Here, the double damage to women can be pinpointed: based on both gender and age. At these ages in Israel, there exists a large gap in participation rates of women in the job market compared to men. This gap does not exist in the overall average participation rate.

Graph 4

Participation rate in Israel, women compared to men at ages 55–64

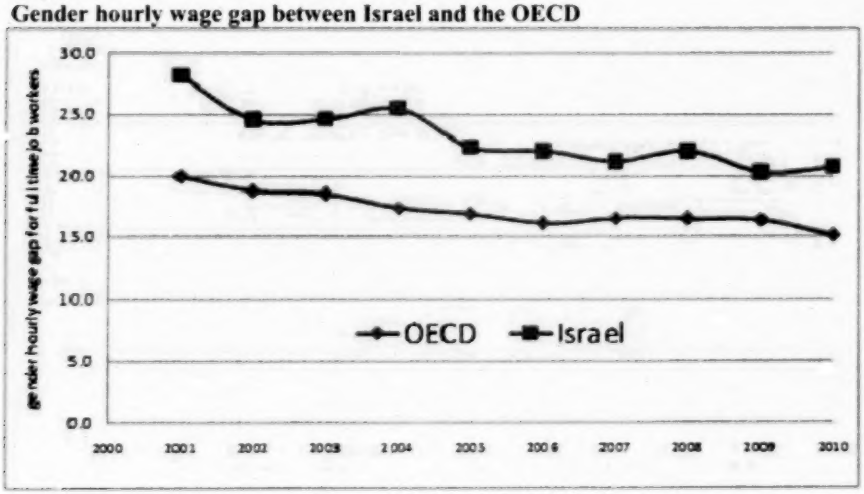


C. Wage Gap

15. It can be seen that in Israel, as in all the OECD countries, wage gaps between men and women exist. The gaps are even larger in Israel than in the OECD countries. However, it can be seen that in recent years, there is a slow trend of narrowing the wage gaps, but the stability of the gap has been maintained.

Graph 5

Gender hourly wage gap between Israel and the OECD



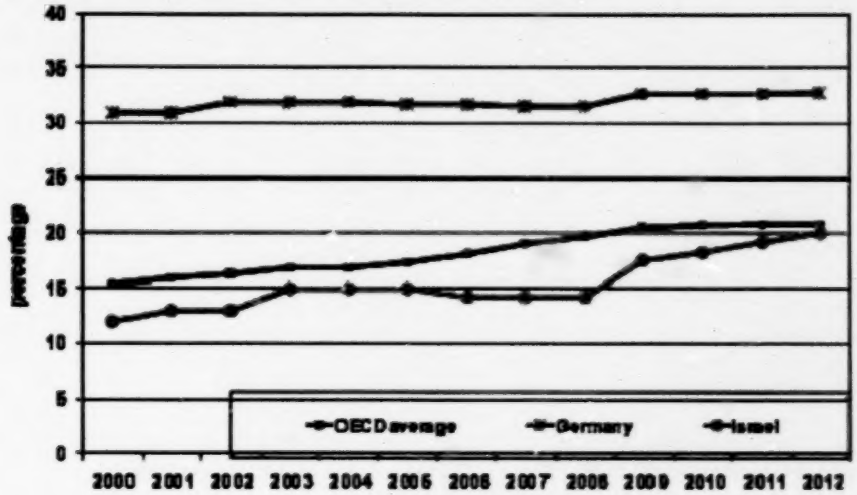
D. Political empowerment, economic empowerment, and entrepreneurship component

16. Regarding the integration of women in key political and economic positions, Israel lags far behind the OECD countries. In Israel, only 17 per cent of legislature members are women, compared to over 30 per cent in Germany. In Israel, 1 in 3 working women is a senior manager, whereas this figure is 1 in 2 in the OECD. In other words, in Israel,

integration or non-integration of women in key positions is even more evident. The explanation for the very extreme situation regarding the entry of women to key positions in Israel might be partly attributed to cliques that are formed in the army. The starting point of men in the business world is higher than women because of the connections and the cliques Israeli men established in their army service and accompany them over their life circles.

Graph 6

Ratio of women members of national parliament, 2000-2011

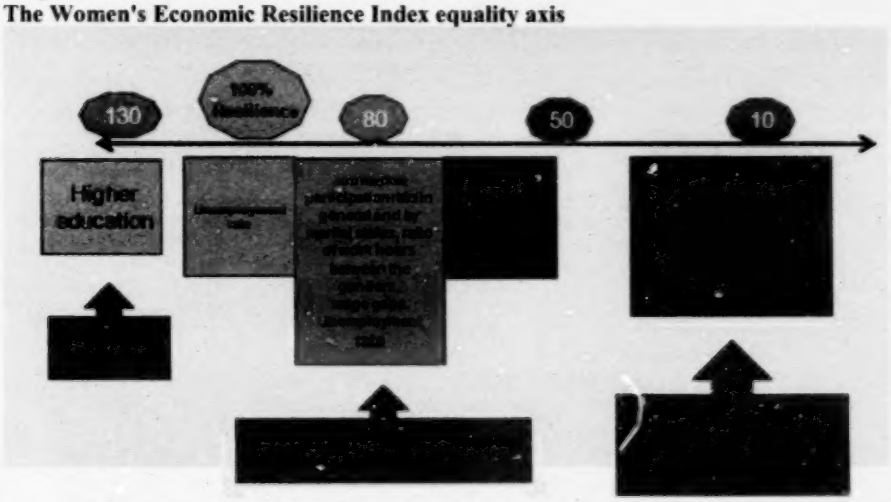


VI. Summary and conclusions

17. Graph 7 summarizes the Women's Economic Resilience Index and presents an equality axis based on the index variables.

Graph 7

The Women's Economic Resilience Index equality axis



18. It can be seen on the equality axis that when the component depends almost exclusively on women's choice, women do everything they can to attain equality and even superiority, such as in the area of education.

19. In the job market as well, it is apparent that women's status is relatively good. Although there is not 100 per cent equality according to the definition of the Economic Resilience Index, it is still apparent that as far as it is up to the women, and as far as it is possible, women are active participants in the job market. The job market includes other players—the employers—who enter the balance of the economic resilience equation. Here, it is apparent that when it comes to job conditions and the participation rate of older women, the Economic Resilience Index slightly decreases. That is, an element of discrimination exists that is manifested when it comes to wage conditions and employment of older workers. Despite all this and despite the discrimination against women on the part of the employers in the job market, the index for the work and wage components still hovers around 80 per cent.

20. The index plummets to approximately 20 per cent in the case of the more powerful political and economic positions for women. A sort of glass ceiling separates the norm (employment participation rates and activity in the job market in general), where women's status is relatively good and improving, from the extreme situation that exists at the higher positions, where entry and acceptance are difficult for women. Clearly, this phenomenon exists worldwide, but it is more severe in Israel.

21. The explanation for the very extreme situation regarding the entry of women to key positions in Israel might be partly attributed to cliques that are formed in the army. In Israel, where army service is mandatory (for both men and women), men naturally in the army promoted more than women and have to serve on a regular basis every year for few weeks until they are 40. After finishing mandatory army service, men are also integrated more into key positions and form cliques and circles of acquaintance with people similar to them. That is part of the reason to the inequity in high level positions in Israel.

22. Also this phenomenon is well spared in the world. Women stop at middle class management positions and their promotion to high positions is prevented. The academic literature used to blame the employers and the society by putting a glass ceiling to women and discriminate them. But, in recent years, some researchers and labour professionals put the blame on women.

23. Unfortunately the numbers don't lie - there are minority of women in high level positions which causes lack of women empowerment and lack of women influence on the society and the economy in a country.

VII. Further work

Without question, the Economic Resilience Index can be further developed and many more variables added. The developers intend to add several variables, involving the following aspects:

(a) The addition of subjective variables such as the fear of being fired from one's workplace;

(b) The inclusion of the fields of study technology and engineering;

(c) The addition of measures of entrepreneurship and advancement of senior managers in the public and private sectors;

(d) The inclusion of aspects of vertical and horizontal segregation in the job market;

(e) The inclusion of legal analysis perspective by adding roles and legislations concerning equity opportunities in the labour market.

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Geneva, 19-21 March 2014
Item 3 of the provisional agenda
Experiences in collecting and using gender indicators for policymaking

Indicators of Gender Equality

Note by the Task Force on Indicators of Gender Equality

Summary

This paper presents a set of 123 gender equality indicators recommended for use in member countries of the Conference of European Statisticians. The indicators are grouped in eight thematic domains inspired by the Beijing Platform for Action and categorized into headline (47 indicators) and supporting indicators (76). The proposals are based on the consideration of policy needs, existing indicator frameworks, relevance to the measurement of gender equality and international availability.

Section I of the report includes the framework for indicator selection, section II presents the summary of the proposed indicators, and section III provides an overview of issues requiring further work.

I. Introduction

A. Background and objective

1. The need to monitor progress towards internationally agreed gender-related policy goals has led to the proliferation of indicators. The 2010 United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Work Session on Gender Statistics recognized that it is important to review the indicators developed for monitoring internationally agreed policy

agendas with a strong gender dimension and to identify the key indicators that member countries of the Conference of European Statisticians (CES)[1] would be able to produce. Such a review would assess the indicators' suitability for describing major gender inequalities, for monitoring gender-relevant policies, their regular availability and comparability across countries.

2. In November 2010, the UNECE Task Force on Indicators of Gender Equality was set up to tackle these issues. The aim was to improve the monitoring of gender equality by consolidating and systematizing the existing proliferation of gender relevant statistical indicators, including developing a framework for grouping indicators by domain and a hierarchy of indicators (headline and supporting indicators in each domain), and by proposing measurement approaches where internationally consistent measures are lacking.

3. This paper contains the main results of this work. At its October 2013 meeting, the CES Bureau decided to send the full report, including an annex with detailed considerations for the selection of indicators, to all CES member countries for electronic consultation. If the outcome of the consultation will be positive, the report will be submitted to the CES 2014 plenary session for endorsement.

4. The report was prepared by the Task Force on Indicators of Gender Equality, which consisted of the following members: Cristina Freguja (Istat, Italy, Chair of the Task Force), Dean Adams and Rajni Madan (Australian Bureau of Statistics), Yafit Alfandari (Central Bureau of Statistics, Israel), Sara Demofonti, Lidia Gargiulo, Paola Ungaro and Maria Giuseppina Muratore (Istat, Italy), Marion van den Brakel (Statistics Netherlands), Maria José Carrilho (Statistics Portugal), Teresa Escudero (National Statistics Institute, Spain), Karen Hurrell (Equality and Human Rights Commission, United Kingdom), Ilze Burkevica, Ligia Nobrega and Anna Rita Manca (European Institute for Gender Equality), Piotr Ronkowski and Sabine Gagel (Eurostat), Adriana Mata Greenwood (International Labour Organization), Andres Vikat, Christopher Jones and Mihaela Darii-Sposato (UNECE).

5. The report has been discussed and agreed by the entire Task Force. Some organizations took the primary responsibility of drafting certain chapters, as follows:

- Statistics Netherlands – Poverty
- National Statistics Institute, Spain – Education
- Australian Bureau of Statistics – Health
- Istat, Italy – Violence
- Central Bureau of Statistics, Israel and UNECE – Economy
- UNECE – Power and decision-making, Media, Childhood and adolescents

[1] The Conference of European Statisticians is composed of national statistical organizations in the UNECE region (for UNECE member countries, see http://www.unece.org/oes/nutshell/member_states_representatives.html) and includes in addition Australia, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Japan, Mexico, Mongolia, New Zealand and Republic of Korea. The major international organizations active in statistics in the UNECE region also participate in the work, such as the statistical office of the European Commission (Eurostat), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the Interstate Statistical Committee of the Commonwealth of the Independent States (CIS-STAT), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank.

- Statistics Portugal – Human rights
- European Institute for Gender Equality – Environment
- Eurostat – Demographic background

6. In this paper, section I includes the framework for indicator selection, section II presents the summary of the proposed indicators, and section III provides an overview of issues requiring further work. The full report includes detailed considerations for the selection of indicators are presented by topic. The rationale for the choice of indicators for each topic is explained with reference to the gender issues related to the topic, data availability, existing indicator frameworks and the criteria for indicator selection.

7. The proposed indicators aim at consistency with other indicator frameworks, such as the Global Minimum Set of gender indicators developed by the Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics, the indicators for monitoring Millennium Development Goals, EU indicators for the Beijing Platform for Action and OECD indicator frameworks. Participation of the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE, located in Vilnius, Lithuania) in the Task Force ensured exchange of information with EIGE's work on the EU Gender Equality Index that evolved in parallel.

B. Framework

8. In recent years, the demand for statistical information by the media, policymakers and the scientific world has grown considerably together with the rapid and substantial changes that have characterized the lifestyles of men and women in the society. For this reason, the national statistical offices are facing a growing demand for more timely and detailed statistics.

9. Statistics and indicators that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men are needed to describe their role in the society, economy and family, formulate and monitor policies and plans, monitor changes, and inform the public. Gender indicators have the function of pointing out gender-related changes in society over time, and therefore to measure whether or to what extent gender equality is being achieved. The compilation of gender equality indicators relies on international monitoring initiatives and takes into account the existing demand for statistical information in this field at national and international levels.

10. The Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics under the United Nations Statistical Commission has established a minimum set of gender indicators for international compilation worldwide, to provide a basis for monitoring gender issues on the global level[2]. This Global Minimum Set contains the minimum common denominator for statistics on gender equality and women's empowerment. It is expected to be the basis for regional and national exercises of indicator development. The indicator set presented here incorporates the great majority of the indicators of the global minimum while including many in addition. The few Global Minimum Set indicators that are not included either are not relevant for most CES member countries or can be substituted with a more precise indicator available for most if these countries.

[2] Gender statistics: Report of the Secretary General. Annex II: Minimum set of gender indicators, United Nations, 2012

C. Selection criteria

11. The criteria for indicator selection were the following:

- The indicator clearly addresses a relevant policy issue related to gender equality and/or women's empowerment;
- The indicator is relevant to the CES member countries;
- The indicator is conceptually clear, easy to interpret, and has an agreed international definition;
- The indicator is sensitive to changes and changes in the value of the indicator have a clear and unambiguous meaning;
- The indicator is feasible, robust and reliable;
- The indicator is comparable over time and enables international comparison.

12. An essential feature of this set of indicators is the hierarchy of headline and supporting indicators. The headline indicators cover the most essential aspects. Their purpose is to provide simple and clear information to decision-makers and the public about progress towards internationally agreed gender-related policy objectives. The supporting indicators provide further information on more specific aspects of gender equality. They are valuable to achieve a deeper comprehension of the phenomenon.

13. Gender indicators, whether headline or supporting, are not merely statistics on men and women. They highlight the contributions of men and women to the society, their different needs and problems. A set of indicators that covers all relevant aspects is necessary, because in isolation, the interpretation of some indicators may be misleading. For example, the traditional focus on labour statistics has mainly been on employment and unemployment, but there is now a growing awareness that looking only at gender disparities in the work environment is insufficient. Gender inequality at the labour market can be underestimated if only employment and unemployment rates are included in the analysis. In fact, the employment rate can increase and unemployment rate can decrease at the cost of the growth of female inactivity, because these rates do not take into account the discouragement of women who give up looking for a job.

D. Domains

14. The Beijing Platform for Action (BPA)[3] is taken as a starting point for identifying the domains of gender equality, because it provides an internationally agreed framework for establishing a relationship between the indicators and the policy concerns. Indicators are proposed in the following domains:

- Poverty (area A of BPA);
- Education and training (B);
- Health (C);
- Violence against women (D);
- Economy, including the labour market and work-and-family issues (F);
- Women in power and decision-making (G);
- Media (J);

[3] Beijing Platform for Action, United Nations, 1995

- Environment (K);
- The girl child (L).

15. Domain E of BPA, "Women and armed conflict" is less relevant for the CES member countries and will not be considered in this framework. In domain H, "Institutional mechanism for the advancement of women", no indicators would require statistical methods for monitoring. This domain was therefore considered to be beyond the scope of the present set of statistical indicators.

16. The BPA promotes the human rights of women and girls through the full implementation of all human rights under Domain I, "Human rights of women", including civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights, including the right to development). This topic was considered, with the conclusion that the human rights aspects are covered under other domains and no additional indicators need to be proposed under this domain.

17. As general background information relevant to the present indicator set, a few indicators describing the demographic situation have been selected.

18. Although not explicitly addressed in BPA, the topic of power and decision-making in the household was deemed highly relevant for CES member countries. Different policy documents of the United Nations have called for designing programmes to address unequal decision-making powers within families and to support men's and women's joint control of household assets and joint household decision-making to guarantee adequate livelihoods for their families[4,5]. This topic is therefore included.

II. Proposed indicators

19. An overview of the selected headline and supporting indicators is displayed below in tabular format. Headline indicators are numbered using the convention that the first number represents the domain to which the indicator relates, and the second number is the number of the headline indicator, so that indicator 1.3 is the third headline indicator in the first domain (Poverty).

20. Supporting indicators are additionally identified with a third number, such that 1.3.1 is the supporting indicator for the headline indicator 1.3.[6] Given the remit of the Task Force to harmonise its recommended indicators with existing gender indicator frameworks and policy commitments, columns are displayed detailing the relevant indicators from the Global Minimum Set, as well as BPA Strategic Objectives.

21. Since the purpose of the indicators is to measure gender equality, each indicator is to be calculated separately for men and women. The specification "by sex" is not repeated in the name of the indicator.

[4] United Nations General Assembly. Follow-up to the tenth anniversary of the International Year of the Family and beyond. Report of the Secretary-General. 29 November. A/66/62–E/2011/4.

[5] United Nations General Assembly. Preparations for and observance of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year of the Family in 2014. Report of the Secretary-General. 11 November. A/67/61–E/2012/3.

[6] Where a supporting indicator exists without reference to a headline indicator, it is numbered corresponding to a "dummy" headline indicator. For example, indicator 1.4.1 is a standalone supporting indicator. Following this numbering system, headline indicators always have duplex numbering, and supporting indicators have triplex numbering.

Indicator number	*Indicator*	*Relevant global min set indicator*	*Relevant BPA strategic objective*
Poverty			
1.1	A country's most commonly used poverty indicator	—	A1, A2
1.1.1	A country's most commonly used poverty indicator, by age	—	A1, A2
1.1.2	A country's most commonly used poverty indicator, by household type	—	A1, A2
Relative poverty			
1.2	At-risk-of-poverty-rate	—	A1, A2
1.2.1	At-risk-of-poverty-rate, by age	—	A1, A2
1.2.2	At-risk-of-poverty-rate, by household type	—	A1, A2
Absolute poverty			
1.3	Rate below basic-needs level	—	A1, A2
1.3.1	Rate below basic-needs level, by age	—	A1, A2
1.3.2	Rate below basic-needs level, by household type	—	A1, A2
1.4.1	Proportion of people living below the 'one-dollar-a-day' level	—	A1, A2
Material deprivation			
1.5.1	Proportion of people living in households who lack at least four out of nine EU-items on material deprivation	—	A1, A2
Education			
Enrolment			
2.1	Tertiary gross enrolment rate	23, 24	B1
2.2	Upper secondary gross enrolment rate	22, 24	B1
2.3.1	Lower secondary net enrolment rate	22, 24	B1
2.3.2	Primary net enrolment rate	21, 24, 27	B1, L4
Lifelong learning			
2.4.1	Lifelong learning	—	B3, B6
Graduation			
2.5	Graduation rate in tertiary education	—	B1
2.6	Share of female graduates in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction	25	B3, B4, L4
2.6.1	Share of female graduates in science, engineering	—	B3, B4, L4
2.6.2	Share of female graduates in manufacturing and construction	—	B3, B4, L4
2.7	Graduation rate in upper secondary education	—	B1
2.7.1	Graduation rate in lower secondary education (ISCED 2)	29	B1
Level of education and literacy attained			
2.8	Distribution of 25-64 years old, by highest level of education attained	31	B1
2.8.1	Distribution of 30-34 years old, by highest level of education attained	—	B1
2.8.2	Literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years	—	B2

Indicator number	*Indicator*	*Relevant global min set indicator*	*Relevant BPA strategic objective*
Others			
2.9	Young people (aged 18-24) not in employment and not in education and training	—	B2
2.10	Proportion of females among third level teachers or professors	26	B4, L4
Health			
Health Status			
3.1	Healthy life years at birth	—	C1, C2
3.1.1	Causes of mortality (death rate): • cerebrovascular disease • ischaemic heart disease • circulatory system disease • suicides • motor vehicle accidents • external causes of injury • poisoning and accidents by age group	42	C1, C2
3.1.2	Infant mortality rate	—	C1, C2
3.1.3	Maternal mortality rate	34	C1, C2
3.1.4	Prevalence of HIV/AIDS, 15-24 year olds	39	C1, C2
Determinants of health			
3.2	Smoking prevalence	37	C2
3.2.1	Smoking prevalence , by age group	37	C2
3.3	Proportion of adults overweight or obese	38	C2
3.3.1	Proportion of adults overweight or obese, by age group	38	C2
Violence			
Physical violence			
4.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.1.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month), severity and sex of perpetrator	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.2	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence during lifetime	—	D1, D2
4.2.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence during lifetime, by frequency (once, few times, many times), severity and sex of perpetrator	—	D1, D2
Sexual violence			
4.3	Rate of women aged 15-49 years, raped in the last 12 months	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2

Indicator number	*Indicator*	*Relevant global min set indicator*	*Relevant BPA strategic objective*
4.4	Rate of women aged 15-49 years, raped during lifetime	—	D1, D2
Psychological and economic violence			
4.5.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to psychological violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner	—	D1, D2
4.6.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to economic violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner	—	D1, D2
Violence by the partner			
4.7	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.7.1	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month) and severity	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.8	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner	—	D1, D2
4.8.1	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence, by frequency (once, few times, many times) and severity	—	D1, D2
4.9	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, killed by an current or a former partner in the last 12 months	—	D1, D2
Stalking			
4.10	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, who have been stalked, by stalking behaviour	—	D1, D2
4.10.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, who have been stalked, by type of perpetrator (current partner, former partner, other known person, unknown person) and sex of perpetrator		D1, D2
Under reporting			
4.11	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence who did not report the crime to the authorities/to the police	—	D2
Violence in childhood			
4.12.1	Rate of women/men subjected to sexual violence in childhood (occurring before sixteen years old)	—	D1, D2

Indicator number	*Indicator*	*Relevant global min set indicator*	*Relevant BPA strategic objective*
Economy			
Labour force participation			
5.1	Inactivity rate	3	F1, F2
5.1.1	Inactivity rate, by age	3	F1, F2
5.1.2	Inactivity rate, by reason for inactivity	3	F1, F2
5.1.3	Inactivity rate, by family context	3	F1, F2
Employment			
5.2	Employment rate	—	F1, F2
5.2.1	Employment rate of 25-64 year-olds, by sector of the economy	—	F1, F2
5.2.2	Employment rate of 25-64 year-olds, by family context	—	F1, F2
5.3	Status in employment (employees, own-account workers, employers and family workers)	4, 5, 6	F1, F2, F5
5.3.1	Status in employment (employees, own-account workers, employers and family workers), by family context	4, 5, 6	F1, F2, F5
5.4	Minimum number of occupations that account for half of the total employment	—	F1, F2, F5
5.5	Hourly gender pay gap	13	F1, F2
5.5.1	Hourly gender pay gap, by education	13	F1, F2
5.6	Proportion of employed working part-time	14	F1, F2
5.6.1	Proportion of employed working part-time, by age, family context	14	F1, F2
5.7	Proportion of employed in time-related underemployment	—	F1, F2
5.7.1	Proportion of employed in time-related underemployment, by family context and age of youngest child	—	F1, F2
5.8	Informal employment of workers in the non-agricultural sector	9	F1, F2, F5
5.8.1	Informal employment of workers in the non-agricultural sector, by family context	9	F1, F2, F5
5.9	Unemployment rate	10	F1, F2
5.9.1	Unemployment rate, by age	10	F1, F2
Entrepreneurship			
5.10	Proportion of employed who are employers	7	F1, F2, F5
Unpaid work and work-life balance			
5.11	Proportion of workers working over 50 hours per week	—	F1, F2, (F5), F6
5.11.1	Proportion of workers working over 50 hours per week, by family context	—	F1, F2, (F5), F6
5.12	Average hours spent in total work (paid and unpaid work)	2	F1, F2, F6
5.12.1	Average hours spent in total work (paid and unpaid work), by family context	2	F1, F2, F6

Indicator number	*Indicator*	*Relevant global min set indicator*	*Relevant BPA strategic objective*
5.13	Average hours spent in unpaid work[7]	1	F1, F2, F6
5.13.1	Average hours spent in unpaid work, by type of unpaid work and family context	1	F1, F2, F6
5.14	Employment rate of 25-49 year-olds	15	F1, F2, F6
5.14.1	Employment rate of 25-49 year-olds, by age of youngest child	15	F1, F2, F6
5.15	Proportion of children under age three in formal care	16	F1, F2, F6
Power and decision-making in society			
Representation of men and women in different social decision-making roles			
6.1	Female legislators, senior officials and managers (% of total)	—	G1, G2
6.1.1	Women's share of ambassadors	—	G1, G2
6.1.2	Women's share of central bank board members	—	G1, G2
6.1.3	Women's share of constitutional court members	—	G1, G2
6.1.4	Women's share of core ministers		G1, G2
6.1.5	Women's share of government ministers	43	G1, G2
6.1.6	Women's share of heads of universities	—	G1, G2
6.1.7	Women's share of journalists	—	G1, G2
6.1.8	Women's share of judges	47	G1, G2
6.1.9	Women's share of members of municipal councils or other local area governing bodies	—	G1, G2
6.1.10	Women's share of members of national parliament	44	G1, G2
6.1.11	Women's share of managerial positions	45	G1, G2
6.1.12	Women's share of police officers	46	G1, G2
6.1.13	Women's share of researchers	—	G1, G2
6.1.14	Women's share of senior level civil servants	—	G1, G2
6.1.15	Women's share of governing bodies of the Labour Confederations	—	G1, G2
6.1.16	Women's share of governing bodies of the Employer Confederations	—	G1, G2
Power and decision-making in the household			
Organisation of household finances, work, and participation in other household decision-making			
6.2	Percentage of women in a co-residential partnership who state that their partner or spouse manages all the money and gives them their share	—	—
6.3	Percentage of women in a co-residential partnership who state that their partner or spouse always or usually makes decisions in the household on the following issues: • large household purchases • routine household purchases • the time she spends in paid work • way of child raising (for couples with children only)	—	—

[7] Housework and child/family members care, unpaid family work

Indicator number	*Indicator*	*Relevant global min set indicator*	*Relevant BPA strategic objective*
	• social activities		
6.4.1	Percentage of women's incomes on partners[8] incomes	—	—
6.5.1	Percentage of women's time spent in unpaid work on partners time spent in unpaid work[9]	—	—
Media			
Media Use			
7.1	Proportion of individuals using mobile/cellular telephones	18	J1
7.2	Proportion of individuals using the Internet (both weekly, and over last 3 months)	17	J1
Stereotypes and portrayal of men and women			
7.3.1	Attitudes of women and men, with regard to the following opinions: • When parents are in need, daughters should take more caring responsibility than sons • If a woman earns more than her partner, it is not good for the relationship • On the whole, men make better political leaders than women • Women should be able decide how to spend money without asking partner • When jobs scarce, men more right to job than women	—	J2
Environment Representation of women amongst environmental scientists and decision-making bodies			
8.1	Proportion of women among government representatives to climate change decision-making bodies at the international level	—	K1
8.2.1	Proportion of women tertiary graduates of total graduates (ISCED levels 5 and 6) in natural sciences and technologies	—	K1
Children and adolescents			
Early marriage and sexual activity			
9.1	Number of 20-24 year old women who were married before age 18	51	L2, L3, L9
9.2	Proportion of young people aged 15-19 years who had sex before age 15	—	L2, L3, L5
9.3	Adolescent fertility rate (15-19 years olds)	52	L2, L3, L5
Self-esteem or self-image			
9.4.1	Percentage of underweight adolescents (15-19 year-olds)	—	L2, L3, L5
Violence in childhood			
9.5.1 (also 4.12.1)	Rate of women/men subjected to sexual violence in childhood (occurring before sixteen years old)	—	L3, L7, L9, (also D1, D2)
9.6.1	Female genital mutilation	50	L1, L2, L3,

[8] Dual earners

[9] Housework and child/family members care, unpaid family work

Indicator number	*Indicator*	*Relevant global min set indicator*	*Relevant BPA strategic objective*
			L5, L7, L9
9.7.1	Child discipline	—	L2, L3, L7, L9
Demography			
10.1.1	Sex ratio for total population	—	Multiple domains
10.1.2	Sex ratio for population aged 65 and over	—	Multiple domains
10.1.3	Life expectancy at birth	—	Multiple domains
10.1.4	Life expectancy at age 65	41	Domain C
10.1.5	Infant mortality rate	—	Domain C
10.1.6	Mean age at first marriage	—	Multiple domains
10.1.7	Mean age of women at birth of first child	—	Multiple domains
10.1.8	Total fertility rate	—	Multiple domains

III. Issues requiring further work

A. Proposals for enhancing the UNECE Gender Statistics Database

22. It would be desirable to update the contents of the UNECE Gender Statistics Database so that it includes all the headline indicators proposed here. This may involve some degree of modification or rationalisation of existing data tables, where the proposed indicators differ from those already available.

23. The feasibility of collecting data on those headline indicators that are currently not represented in the UNECE Statistical Database needs to be investigated. This has to consider:

(a) Availability of such data in other international databases and periodicity of their updating

(b) Resources available to the UNECE Statistical Division for maintaining and collecting the additional data

(c) Response burden to national statistical organizations

(d) Feasibility to collect data retroactively to achieve the same kind of time series as with the existing data in the UNECE Database.

B. Methodological and data issues

24. The following areas have been identified as meriting further methodological work, which are grouped according to the relevant section heading.

1. Poverty

25. The difficulty in the measurement of poverty necessitates further work on the following issues:

- Inclusion of social transfers in kind in income estimates (e.g., the Canberra concept of income);
- Creation of meaningful measures of poverty that take into account the financial (in)dependence of people, other than measures at household level, and considering how to get more detailed breakdowns (by sex, by sex and age, by sex and household type) of existing poverty indicators. The lack of other than household-level measures of poverty is a particular impediment in measuring the gender differential in poverty;
- Combining of income, and consumption and wealth measures, following the completion of the work of the OECD Expert Group on Income, Consumption and Wealth.

2. Violence

26. In addition to the violence indicators defined in this paper, further work is required in some aspects that are insufficiently considered from the perspective of more developed countries. These indicators concern reporting behaviour, stalking and violence in childhood.

(a) Reporting

27. The violence that is not reported to authorities was among the topics considered by the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on Statistical Indicators on Violence against Women. They exchanged views on the importance of obtaining data on unreported physical and sexual violence, as the reasons for not reporting vary widely according to certain characteristics of the victim or the perpetrator, which has great implications for policy formulation.

28. The Friends of the Chair group decided that this issue would be better addressed as an additional variable, rather than an independent indicator. Consequently, they introduced it as a dimension, at the same level as frequency and severity, to be collected for the four indicators on physical and sexual violence. Nevertheless, in order to point out a minimum set of recommended indicators, we chose to consider a single indicator on the underreporting.

(b) Stalking

29. Stalking is a relevant phenomenon within the framework of violence against women. It is a type of violence itself and it is a strong predictor for further and severe violence.

30. We strongly recommend defining a stalking indicator; even if there will be some difficulties in identifying consistent definitions. Some countries have different national legal definitions, but our aim is to give a statistical definition that represents well the persecution behaviour.

31. Stalking can be described as persecutory behaviour that frightens the victim and can assume different forms: unwanted gifts, unwanted contacts (e.g., trying to talk to a woman in a nagging way against her will, repeatedly asking for an appointment to meet her, waiting for her outside home or at school or at the workplace, sending messages, phone calls, e-mail, mails) and other forms of control (following or spying on her). Stalking can be from anyone, but the most severe form is the stalking that happens in the framework of an intimate relationship, generally from a former partner around the time of separation. Nevertheless, recent studies have shown that stalking is also frequent by other persons (other than partners) and for this reason, stalking by anyone should also be collected.

(c) Sexual violence in childhood

32. Violence in childhood is an important topic to study as well as a significant predictor of violence suffered in adult life. It is very difficult to carry out surveys regarding violence in childhood and to survey young people and children at the time violence occurred. Therefore, retrospective strategies can be used and an indicator can be the percentage of women sexually abused before age 16. This indicator is used in many countries, because it is easier to tell ex-post the childhood violence experience, rather than to speak about it at the time of occurrence.

33. The Friends of the Chair group considered pertinent to make a clear distinction between indicators on current child abuse and adult women who were abused in their childhood. It concluded that only the latter falls within the scope of its mandate and agreed to limit it to sexual violence, given that physical violence during childhood is not necessarily associated with gender.

(d) Health

34. Many of the indicators identified in this section are based on basic health issues, developed to guide progress in developing countries. For the CES member countries, some of these issues have strong policy relevance while others do not.

35. The review of potential indicators did not identify an indicator that considers the role of a country's health system in determining health outcomes. Many of these indicators lacked relevance or widespread availability in CES member countries. The most relevant indicators among those identified considered access to health care issues and unmet health care needs. However, such indicators would require further methodological work in order to be considered in this indicator set. Other indicators related to issues that may affect developed health systems such as polypharmacy could further be considered in this area.

36. Further work should also look at developing comparable indicators across CES member countries that address more sophisticated health policy areas, such as monitoring disabilities, mental illnesses and long-term health conditions that can impact on the human function. Health determinants typical for developed countries, such as lack of physical activity, could also be considered in an indicator set for the CES member countries.

(e) Power and decision-making in society

37. The source(s) of the proposed indicators for the representation of women and men in governing bodies of the labour confederations and employer confederations have not yet been identified. Since these mirror the indicators proposed within the EU indicators for the BPA, it is expected that the source for these indicators will be subsequently established for EU countries. No such mechanism is yet known for other CES member countries.

(f) Power and decision-making in the household

38. Further work on establishing a robust statistical indicator of gender equality related to decisions to have children would be of merit, given the importance of this issue to the CES member countries, both in terms of those constraints external to the family (e.g. income, childcare), and in terms of decision-making between partners. Such work would be especially useful if it led to the creation of suitable indicators on gender equality in this respect.

39. Additionally, given that the proposed indicators in this domain are from the Generations and Gender Surveys (GGS) that have limited coverage of Eastern Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia, it would be advantageous to investigate whether proxy indicators for these indicators could be obtained from Demographic and Health Surveys

(DHS), Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) or the European Values Study[10] (albeit that the long time interval between surveys would preclude this from being the main source of data for the indicators).

(g) Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of gender equality

40. The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) is pursuing the development of indicators on institutional mechanisms for the advancement of gender equality. Once completed, it would be useful to review the report to identify whether the indicators proposed could also be adopted beyond EU countries.

(h) Media

41. The European Institute for Gender Equality has undertaken methodological work on indicators for the Media domain. This includes women's representation in media organisations and related bodies, such as non-executive boards and regulatory bodies.

42. Once this work is completed, it would be useful to consider whether the definitions proposed in this regard could be employed beyond EU countries, taking into consideration the possibility that media-related decision-making may be structured differently in non-EU countries.

43. With regard to the topic of gender attitudes and stereotypes, more work and empirical testing is required to see how a robust index of gender attitudes could be constructed based on the items currently available from the Generations and Gender Surveys (GGS). Alternatively, one or two of the attitudes could be selected to represent the dimension of gender stereotypes.

(i) Children and adolescents

44. The BPA objective L6 "Eliminate the economic exploitation of child labour and protect young girls at work" is not addressed due to the lack of available data on both child labour and child domestic work. Some data on child labour exists, but it is not disseminated at the country level and does not take into account unremunerated domestic work. Given the international interest in this topic and its high policy relevance, we see this as an area where further methodological work and data collection would be useful.

[10] http://www.europeanvaluesstudy.eu